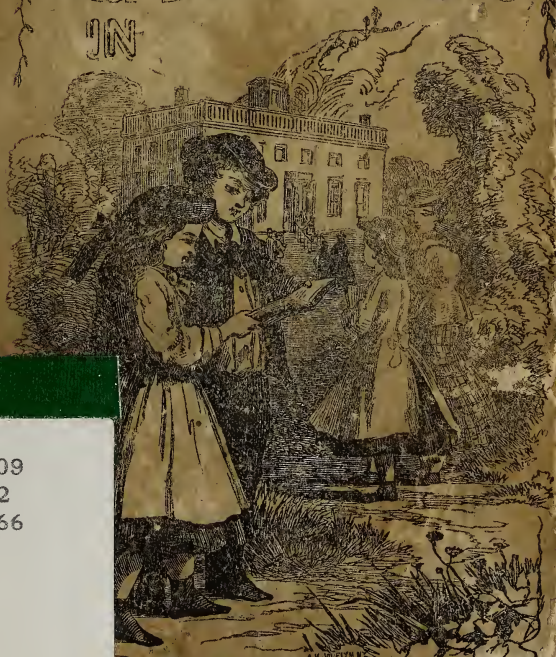


QUACKENBOS'S FIRST BOOK IN



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GRAMMAR.

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FIRST BOOK

IN

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY

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PREFACE.

THIS "First Book in Grammar" has been prepared to meet the wants of young beginners in that branch, as well as those who need a brief summary of the subject. To awaken their interest, to teach them to think, to enable them to understand as they learn, to lead them from step to step in the most natural way, and to give a direct practical application to every abstract principle, have been the leading objects of the author. He has endeavored to condense in a small space and an attractive form all that is of prime importance; and, while it is desirable that every pupil should follow this course with a more comprehensive one, it is believed that those who master what is here presented will obtain a very fair view of the language. The teacher's convenience has been consulted throughout. The Lessons are short and easy, and illustrated with Exercises that will impress them on the mind.

The system here embodied is the same (in a simplified form) as that which has been so generally commended in the author's larger Grammar. The Exercises, however, whether in etymology, parsing, analysis, or false syntax, are different; so that those who advance from this to the larger work will not be obliged to go over the same field a second time, but will find that the two books form a consistent and well graded whole. It is hoped that those who have made the author's "First Lessons in Composition" and "Advanced Course of Composition and Rhetoric" their text-books on the synthesis of our language, may find his Grammars equally useful in connection with its analysis.

NEW YORK, *March* 19, 1864.

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FIRST BOOK IN GRAMMAR.

LESSON I.

Weeds grow rapidly.

Repeat the above words. What do they form ?

A Sentence.

Why do we use this sentence ?

To express a thought.

Of what is the sentence made up ?

Of three words, each the sign of an idea.

What do these words tell us ?

Weeds tells us what is spoken about.

Grow tells us what the weeds do.

Rapidly tells us how the weeds grow.

What do we use, then, to express our thoughts ?

Sentences.

Of what are sentences made up ?

Of Words, which are the signs of ideas.

EXERCISE.

Complete these sentences by supplying words to tell what is spoken about : — killed Goliath. — cross the ocean. — fly swiftly. — will stain the fingers. — smell sweet. — build houses. — keep us warm. — bark.

Complete these sentences by telling what horses do : Horses — oats. Horses — carts. Horses — water. Horses — grass. Horses — flies. Horses — in the fields. Horses — their masters. Horses — races.

LESSON II.

What is a Word?

A **Word** is the sign of an idea. The word *ice* is a sign that stands for *frozen water*.

Of what is a word, when written, made up?

Of Letters. The word *ice* is made up of three letters.

What does every letter stand for?

A sound of the voice used in speaking.

How many letters are there in English?

Twenty-six : *a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z.*

What do these letters form?

The Alphabet.

What is Spelling?

Spelling is putting letters together correctly, to form words.

EXERCISE.

Spell the following words:—Business; separate; prairie; independence; believe; peaceable; sympathize; heroes; possessor; cemetery; receive; outrageous; monkeys; erysipelas; scimitar; seminary; maintenance; Springfield; Pyrenees; Mississippi; Cincinnati.

LESSON III.

Pronounce the word *car*. Pronounce *carpet*. Pronounce *carpeting*. What difference may be observed in pronouncing these words?

Car is pronounced with one impulse of the voice. *Car-pet* requires two impulses; *car-pet-ing*, three.

What do we call that which is pronounced with one impulse of the voice?

A Syllable.

How many syllables, then, in *car*? In *carpet*? In *carpeting*?
Mention a word of one syllable; of two syllables; of three;
of four.

What is a word of one syllable called?

A Monosyllable; as, *he*.

What is a word of two syllables called?

A Dissyllable; as, *he-ro*.

What is a word of three syllables called?

A Trisyllable; as, *he-ro-ic*.

What is a word of more than three syllables called?

A Polysyllable; as, *he-ro-i-cal*, *he-ro-i-cal-ly*.

Name the four classes, then, into which words are divided, with reference to their number of syllables. How many syllables does each of these contain?

EXERCISE.

*Divide each word into its syllables; tell whether it is a monosyllable, dissyllable, trisyllable, or polysyllable:—*a; an; and; hand; handy; unhandy; handy-work; reprehensible; Virginia; service; serviceable; ploughs; mineralogy; pretend; history; noticed; noticing; talked.

LESSON IV.

How many letters in the English alphabet? How are these divided?

Into two classes, Vowels and Consonants.

What is a Vowel?

A Vowel is a letter that can be uttered freely, without interruption from the tongue or lips; as, *a*, *e*.

What is a Consonant?

A Consonant is a letter that can not be uttered freely, but is more or less interrupted by the tongue or lips; as, *b*, *f*. Try to sound these letters.

How many and which of the letters are always vowels ?

Five ; *a, e, i, o, u.*

How many and which of the letters are always consonants ?

Nineteen ; *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z.*

Are *w* and *y* vowels or consonants ?

W and *y* are consonants when they precede a vowel sounded in the same syllable ; as in *wet, swing, reward, yet, un-yoke*. In all other cases, they are vowels ; as in *new, owe, by, rye, new-ly*.

EXERCISE.

*Pronounce each word ; tell whether it is a monosyllable, dissyllable, trisyllable, or polysyllable. Name each letter ; tell whether it is a vowel or consonant :—*Baby ; why ; awfully ; mysteriously ; showed ; drying ; joke ; knowingly ; zero ; viewed ; whortleberry ; gown ; waxen ; unwrap.

LESSON V.

Name the vowels.

A, e, i, o, u,—and *w* and *y*, when they do not precede a vowel sounded in the same syllable.

How many vowels are sometimes combined in one syllable ?

Two, or even three.

What is a Diphthong ?

A **Diphthong** is a combination of two vowels in one syllable ; as, *ea* in *eat*, *oi* in *oil*.

What is a Triphthong ?

A **Triphthong** is a combination of three vowels in one syllable ; as, *eau* in *beau*, *owe* in *owed*.

What is a Final Letter ?

A **Final Letter** is one that ends a word ; as, *t* in *hat*.

What is a Silent Letter?

A Silent Letter is one not sounded. *E* is silent in *ice*, *g* in *gnaw*, *l* in *walk*, *w* in *wrong*.

EXERCISE.

*Point out the vowels, diphthongs, triphthongs, final letters, and silent letters:—*Receive; chalk; plough; wreath; knowledge; gnat; eye-brow; beautiful; hour; juice; numbness; castle; awe-struck; ewe-lamb; two-tongued; sweetly; Europe.

LESSON VI.

A REVIEW.

How many letters in the English alphabet? Are these letters mostly vowels or consonants? What is *b*? What is *a*? What is *w*? What is a diphthong? What is a triphthong? Which contains the greater number of vowels, a diphthong or a triphthong? May *w* occur in a diphthong? May *y* occur in a triphthong?

Which is longer, a monosyllable or a polysyllable? How many more syllables has a trisyllable than a dissyllable? What is a word of eight syllables called, like *incomprehensibility*? A word of six syllables, like *incomprehensible*? Add one more syllable to a monosyllable, and what does it become?

What are the simplest elements of language?

LETTERS, which stand for simple sounds of the voice used in speaking.

In what are letters combined?

In SYLLABLES, which represent sounds uttered by one impulse of the voice.

In what are syllables combined?

In WORDS, which are the signs of ideas.

In what are words combined?

In SENTENCES, which express thoughts.

What does Grammar teach us?

Grammar teaches us how to put words together in sentences, to express thoughts correctly.

EXERCISE.

Write four trisyllables; four monosyllables; four polysyllables; four dissyllables; four words containing diphthongs; four containing triphthongs; four ending with silent e; four words having final y; four words having a final consonant; four having a final vowel.

LESSON VII.

In forming sentences, what do we have to use?

Different kinds of words, expressing different ideas.

Show this in the sentence, *But see! he is walking slowly under the shady trees.*

We use the word *trees* as the name of certain objects.

We use *shady* to describe *trees*, to tell what kind of trees is meant.

We use *the* to point out some particular trees.

We use *he* for the person's name; in stead of *James* or *John* is walking, we say *he* is walking.

We use *is walking* to affirm an action, to tell what he is doing.

We use *under* to show the relation between *is walking* and *trees*; not *over* the trees, or *from* the trees, but *under* the trees.

We use *slowly* to tell how he is walking.

We use *see!* to call attention.

We use *but* to connect the sentence with something going before.

How many different classes of words have we thus found ?

Nine, each performing a different office.

What are these nine classes of words called ?

PARTS OF SPEECH.

EXERCISE.

Give the names of all the trees that you can think of ; as, hemlock, beech, pine, &c.

Give all the words you can think of that will describe the trees ; as, shady trees, tall trees, spreading trees, &c.

Give all the words you can think of that will tell what he is doing under the shady trees ; he is walking, he is running, he is reading, &c.

Give all the words you can think of that will tell how he is walking ; he is walking slowly, gracefully, quickly, &c.

LESSON VIII.

How many parts of speech are there ?

Nine.

Name them.

Nouns, Pronouns, Articles, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

What is the first part of speech ?

The Noun.

What is a Noun ?

A Noun is a word used as a name.

Give examples.

The names of persons are nouns ; as, *Adam, Victoria, General Taylor, Dr. Benjamin Franklin.*

The names of countries, cities, towns, rivers, mountains, &c., are nouns ; as, *Scotland, New York, Missouri River, Rocky Mountains, Atlantic Ocean.*

The names of things that can be seen, heard, felt, smelled, and tasted, are nouns ; as, *men, thunder, heat, roses, sugar.*

The names of things that are not seen, &c., but simply thought of, are nouns ; as, *art, death, happiness, patience, genius.*

What is your name ? What part of speech is it ? Mention four nouns, the names of persons ; mention four, the names of countries ; mention four, the names of things you can see ; mention four, the names of things you can not see.

EXERCISE.

Supply as many appropriate nouns as you can think of, in place of each dash : Farmers raise ——. — are sold by dry-goods merchants. We can buy — in market. Hunters often shoot ——. — are made of wood. Every one has heard of such great men as ——. The fisherman caught some —.

LESSON IX.

How many parts of speech are there ? Name them. Which is the first ? What is a noun ? What are all names ?

How many kinds of nouns are there ?

Two, Common and Proper.

What is a Common Noun ?

A **Common Noun** is a name that may be applied to all objects of the same kind ; as, *boy, country, island, dog.*

What is a Proper Noun ?

A **Proper Noun** is the name of an individual object, which can not be applied to all others of the same kind ; as, *Richard, Peru, Ireland, Carlo.*

What kind of nouns are the names of nations ?

The names of nations are proper nouns ; as, the *Germans*.

How must proper nouns always commence ?

With capital letters. See the above examples.

EXERCISE.

*Complete these sentences by supplying nouns of the class indicated :—*The Amazon is the longest river in (*proper noun*).—Columbus found America inhabited by (*proper*).—Grocers sell (*six common nouns*).—Cain killed (*proper*), his (*common*), and was punished for his (*common*).—The garden was bright with (*six common nouns*) and other flowers.—In the Bible we read about (*four proper nouns*) and other good (*common*).—Joseph had a (*common*) of many colors.

LESSON X.

How many classes of nouns are there ? Name and define them.

I, James, promise to go.

James, do you promise to go ?

James promised to go.

How is James represented in these three sentences ?

In the first sentence, James is represented as speaking ; in the second, as spoken to ; in the third, as spoken of.

In parsing, how do we distinguish the noun *James* in these sentences ?

In the first sentence, we say that *James* is *in the first person* ; in the second sentence, it is *in the second person* ; in the third sentence, *in the third person*.

How many persons, then, are there ?

Three ; the First, the Second, and the Third.

What do these three persons denote ?

The **First Person** denotes that which speaks ; the **Second Person**, that which is spoken to ; the **Third Person**, that which is spoken of.

Does a noun show its person by its form ?

No ; its form is the same in all three persons.

In what person are most nouns that occur in sentences ?

In the third person, because they denote things that are spoken of.

EXERCISE.

Select the nouns. Tell their class and person. [Thus :—*Boy* is a common noun, in the second person. *Labor* is a common noun, in the third person.] Toil on, brave boy ; for labor conquers all things.—Alexander Hamilton was shot in a duel by Aaron Burr.—We moderns have many improvements that our forefathers did not possess.—Rejoice, O young man, in thy youth.—I, Pharaoh, dreamed a dream.—Thank Roger Bacon, ye old men, that ye can see, for he invented spectacles.

LESSON XI.

What property have we just found that nouns possess ? How many persons are there ? What do they denote ?

One *year*.

Two *years* ; five *years* ; ten *years* ; a thousand *years*.

What is to be observed in these expressions ?

When *one* is spoken of, the word *year* is used ; when more than one, the form changes to *years*.

In parsing, how do we distinguish *year* and *years* ?

We say that *year* is in the singular number, and *years* is in the plural number.

How many numbers are there ?

Two, the Singular and the Plural.

What do they denote ?

The **Singular** denotes one ; the **Plural**, more than one.

Does a noun show its number by its form ?

Generally ; most nouns change their form in the plural. Thus :—

<i>Singular.</i>	Year,	potato,	man,	child,
<i>Plural.</i>	Years ;	potatoes ;	men ;	children.

EXERCISE

Select the nouns. Tell their class, person, and number.
 [Thus :—*Kings* is a common noun, in the third person, plural number. *Rome* is a proper noun, in the third person, singular number.] Seven kings ruled Rome.—A sheep will yield about three pounds of wool every year.—Homer, Virgil, and Milton, are the three great epic poets.—Lift up your heads, ye everlasting gates.—Moses wrote the first five books of the Bible.—Deer are still found in the Adirondack Mountains.

LESSON XII.

How many properties have we thus far found nouns to possess ?
 How many persons are there ? Name them. How many numbers are there ? Name them. How many consonants are there ? Name them. How many vowels are there ? Name them.

How do most nouns form their plural ?

Most nouns form their plural by adding *s* to the singular : as, hat, hats ; dwarf, dwarfs ; cuckoo, cuckoos ; Cato, the Catos.

What nouns form their plural by adding *es* ?

Nouns ending as follows form their plural by adding *es* :—

1. In *ch* not sounded like *k* ; as, torch, torches.

2. In *s* and *sh*: as, gas, gases; gash, gashes.

3. In *x* and *z*: as, tax, taxes; waltz, waltzes.

4. In *i*, *o*, or *u*, preceded by a consonant: as, alkali, alkalies; cargo, cargoes; gnu, gnues.

Do any nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant take *s* alone, to form the plural?

A few: as, canto, cantos; grotto, grottos; halo, halos; portico, porticos; solo, solos; tyro, tyros.

How do common nouns ending in *y* form the plural?

1. If final *y* is preceded by a vowel, they simply add *s*; as, valley, valleys.

2. If final *y* is preceded by a consonant, they change it to *ies*; as, fly, flies.

Name fifteen nouns ending in *f* and *fe*, that change these letters to *ves* in the plural.

Beef, beeves; leaf, leaves; sheaf, sheaves; thief, thieves; loaf, loaves; calf, calves; half, halves; elf, elves; self, selves; shelf, shelves; wolf, wolves; life, lives; knife, knives; wife, wives; wharf, wharves or wharfs.

EXERCISE.

Spell and define the plural. [Thus:—*s-h-o-e-s*, more than one shoe.] Shoe; rat; wren; arch; monarch; beech; kiss; blush; box; topaz; alkali; pine; halo; crash; tomato; bamboo; trio; grotto; echo; cry; boy; sty; mercy; play; canopy; eye; ray; leaf; pen-knife (*like knife*); hoof; sea-calf (*like calf*); muff; life; knee; ewe.

LESSON XIII.

How do most nouns form their plural? What nouns take *es* to form their plural? How do nouns in *y* form their plural? Name the nouns that form their plural in *ves*.

Name some nouns quite irregular in their plural.

The following nouns are quite irregular:—

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
Child,	children.	Louse,	lice.	Ox,	oxen.
Foot,	feet.	Mouse,	mice.	Tooth,	teeth.
Goose,	geese.	Man,	men.	Woman,	women.

What compounds of these words form their plural similarly?

Compounds in which these words stand last, form their plural similarly: as, *grandchild*, *grandchildren*; *fireman*, *firemen*.

Give some nouns that take both a regular and an irregular plural.

Some nouns have both a regular and an irregular plural, with different meanings:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Regular Plural.</i>	<i>Irregular Plural.</i>
Brother,	<i>brothers</i> (of a family),	<i>brethren</i> (of a society).
Die,	<i>dies</i> (stamps for coining),	<i>dice</i> (cubes for gaming).
Genius,	<i>geniuses</i> (men of genius),	<i>genii</i> (spirits).
Head,	<i>heads</i> (parts of the body),	<i>head</i> (of cattle).
Pea,	<i>peas</i> (distinct grains),	<i>pease</i> (taken in bulk).
Penny,	<i>pennies</i> (distinct coins),	<i>pence</i> (a sum of money).
Sail,	<i>sails</i> (pieces of canvas),	<i>sail</i> (vessels).

Give some nouns that have the same form in both numbers.

The following nouns are alike in both numbers: *alms*, *bellows*, *cannon*, *deer*, *means*, *sheep*, *swine*, and the compounds of the word *fish*, as *codfish*, &c.

EXERCISE.

Spell and define the plural:—Ox; ox-fly; mouse; dormouse; man; waterman; washerwoman; Frenchman; gooseberry; tooth-pick; eye-tooth; cannon; fallow-deer; sheep; wharf; sword-fish; handful; step-father.

Spell the singular:—Moneys; enemies; keys; fleas; thieves; heroes; tyros; Neros; alms; dice; bellows;

Irishwomen ; sheep ; black-fish ; Germans ; waltzes ; leaves ; pence ; volleys ; genii ; piano-fortes ; brothers-in-law.

LESSON XIV.

How do foreign words introduced into English without change form their plural ?

Some keep their foreign plural ; some take the regular English plural ; some take both.

How do foreign nouns ending in *a* form their foreign plural ?

Foreign nouns in *a* change *a* to *æ* ; as, *vertebra*, *vertebræ*.

How do foreign nouns in *us* form their foreign plural ?

Foreign nouns in *us* change *us* to *i* ; as,

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Alumnus,	alumni.	Nucleus,	nuclei, R.*
Focus,	foci.	Radius,	radii, R.
Magus,	magi.	Sarcophagus,	sarcophagi, R.

How do foreign nouns in *is* form their foreign plural ?

Foreign nouns in *is* change *is* to *es* ; as,

Axis,	axes.	Hypothesis,	hypotheses.
Basis,	bases.	Oasis,	oases.
Crisis,	crises.	Parenthesis,	parentheses.

How do foreign nouns in *um* and *on* form their plural ?

Foreign nouns in *um* and *on* change *um* and *on* to *a* ; as,

Animalculum,	animalcula.	Erratum,	errata.
Aquarium,	aquaria, R.	Gymnasium,	gymnasia, R.
Automaton,	automata, R.	Herbarium,	herbaria, R.
Criterion,	criteria, R.	Medium,	media, R.
Datum,	data.	Memorandum,	memoranda, R.
Encomium,	encomia, R.	Phenomenon,	phenomena.

* R. means that the noun takes also the regular English plural ; *nucleus*, *nuclei* or *nucleuses*.

Give the plural of some more foreign nouns.

Appendix, appendices, R. ; beau, beaux, R. ; cherub, cherubim, R. ; seraph, seraphim, R.

EXERCISE.

Supply the proper plural :—Napoleon made his [*brothers* or *brethren*?] kings.—The gambler must have his [*dies* or *dice*?].—We need [*geniuses* or *genii*?] at the head of affairs.—Weak [*heads* or *head*?] often go with strong bodies.—Twenty [*heads* or *head*?] of cattle have just passed.

I owe you eight [*pennies* or *pence*?], but have only three [*pennies* or *pence*?] in my pocket.—Thirty [*sails* or *sail*?] swept up the bay, with all their [*sails* or *sail*?] set.—Buy a bushel of [*peas* or *pease*?].—Two [*peas* or *pease*?] produce two hundred.—Good [*geniuses* or *genii*?] guard thee!—[*Dies* or *dice*?] are used in coining.

LESSON XV.

What are the different classes of words called? How many parts of speech are there? What is the first part of speech? What properties have we thus far found nouns to possess? How do most nouns form their plural?

How do some compounds form their plural?

The following compounds vary both words that compose them :—

Man-servant, men-servants.	Woman-servant, women-servants.
Man-singer, men-singers.	Woman-singer, women-singers.
Man-child, men-children.	Knight-templar, knights-templars.

Are there any nouns not found in both numbers?

Yes; some nouns have no plural, and some no singular.

Mention some nouns that have no plural.

Many names of virtues, vices, arts, sciences, dis-

eases, and articles sold by weight, have no plural; as, *patience, idleness, architecture, music, gout, lard.*

Mention some nouns that have no singular.

Some nouns have no singular; as,

Aborigines	Bitters	Goods	Suds
Annals	Cattle	Headquarters	Tidings
Ashes	Clothes	Riches	Victuals
Billiards	Fireworks	Spectacles	Wages

EXERCISE.

Mention six foreign nouns in the singular number; six in the plural.

Correct the errors. Then select the nouns; tell their class, person, and number:—Goliath, the giant of Gath, was nearly ten foot high.—The phenomenons of the air are wonderful.—Where are the bellowses?—Pharaoh put the man-children of the Hebrews to death.—The cannons roared as the sail were unfurled.—Water is full of animalculums.—Cherubims and seraphims raise their songs.

LESSON XVI.

<i>Lion,</i>	<i>Lioness.</i>
<i>Boy,</i>	<i>Girl.</i>
<i>Man-singer,</i>	<i>Woman-singer.</i>

Compare the words in the first column with those in the second. What is to be observed?

The former denote males; the latter, females.

In parsing, how do we distinguish *lion* and *lioness*?

We say that *lion* is of the masculine gender, and *lioness* is of the feminine gender.

Here, then, is a new property that some nouns possess; what is it called?

Gender.

How many genders are there ?

Two, the Masculine and the Feminine.

What do they denote ?

The **Masculine Gender** denotes males; the **Feminine**, females.

What is the gender of a noun that denotes either male or female,—as *neighbor* ?

Such a noun is masculine or feminine; we say briefly that it is *of common gender*

Do all nouns have gender ?

No. Things without life are neither male nor female. Hence their names have no gender.

EXERCISE.

Mention the nouns, their class, person, number, and gender when they have it. [Thus:—Daniel Webster is a proper noun, in the third person, singular number, masculine gender. New Hampshire is a proper noun, in the third person, singular number. Neighbors is a common noun, in the third person, plural number, common gender.]

Daniel Webster was born in New Hampshire.—Love your neighbors.—The birds of tropical regions generally have beautiful plumage.—Men of Switzerland, remember William Tell.—Sponges are obtained by divers in the Mediterranean Sea.

LESSON XVII.

How many genders are there ? Name and define them. What nouns have gender, and what nouns have none ? What nouns are said to be of common gender ?

When is a common noun said to be personified ?

When it is used as the name of a person.

“Sorrow sits veiling her eyes.” Here *Sorrow* is

represented as doing something that only a person can do, and it is therefore said to be *personified*.

Does the name of an object personified have gender?

Yes. Fierce and mighty objects (as War, Time) are personified as males, and their names become masculine. Gentle and beautiful objects (as Hope, Evening) are personified as females, and their names become feminine.

How must the name of an object personified commence?

With a capital letter.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns. [Thus:—*Hope* is a common noun personified, in the third person, singular number, feminine gender.] Hope whispers her fair promises in the ears of youth.—Anger plunges the dagger in his brother's heart.—Henry Clay was born in Virginia.—Peace and Plenty go smiling through the land.—With his remorseless scythe, Time mows down the nations.—Justice, with bandaged eyes, holds her impartial balance.—Humility is the meek-eyed daughter of Religion.—Sweet Charity, of thee I sing.

LESSON XVIII.

Have all masculine nouns corresponding feminines?

Not all, but some have: as, lion, *lioness*; boy, *girl*.

In how many ways are feminines distinguished from their corresponding masculines?

In three ways:—

I. By adding *ess*, *ine*, *ina*, *ix*, or *a* to the masculine, with or without change; as,

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot,	abbess.	Hero,	heroine.
Actor,	actress.	Paul,	Pauline.
Count,	countess.	Czar,	czarina.
Duke,	duchess.	Administrator,	administratrix.
Emperor,	empress.	Executor,	executrix.
God,	goddess.	Sultan,	sultana.
Marquis,	marchioness.	Louis,	Louisa.

II. By using an entirely different word; as,

<i>Mas.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Mas.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Mas.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
Beau,	belle.	Father,	mother	Master,	mistress.
Boy,	girl.	Gander,	goose.	Nephew,	niece.
Brother,	sister.	Hart,	roe.	Ram,	ewe.
Buck,	doe.	Horse,	mare.	Son,	daughter.
Bull,	cow.	King,	queen.	Stag,	hind.
Drake,	duck.	Lord,	lady.	Steer,	heifer.
Earl,	countess.	Man,	woman.	Uncle,	aunt.

III. By prefixing words that denote the sex to nouns of the common gender; as,

Man-servant,	maid-servant.	Cock-sparrow,	hen-sparrow.
Male-descendant,	{ female-de-	He-goat,	she-goat.
	{ scendant.	Buck-rabbit,	doe-rabbit.

EXERCISE.

Give the feminine:—Lion; tailor; Jew; shepherd; arch-duke; marquis; Augustus; Cornelius; earl; school-boy; ram; step-father; brother-in-law; man-singer; male-servant; king; stag; school-master.

Give the masculine:—Tigress; poetess; priestess; Josephine; Henrietta; Julia; heifer; doe; granddaughter; heiress; gentlewoman; roe; landlady; duck; godmother; baroness; czarina; executrix.

Mention six masculine nouns; six feminines; six nouns of common gender; six nouns that have no gender.

LESSON XIX.

What is a Sentence?

A **Sentence** is such an assemblage of words as makes complete sense; as, "Bees make honey."

What must every sentence contain?

Every sentence must contain a *verb*, which affirms some action or state.

What is meant by the Subject of a verb?

The **Subject** of a verb is that of which the action or state is affirmed.

What is meant by the Object of a verb?

The **Object** of a verb is that on which the action expressed by the verb is exerted.

Give examples.

"Bees make honey." *Make* affirms an action, and is a verb. *Bees* is its subject; *honey* is its object.

How can you find the subject of a verb?

By asking a question with *who* or *what* before the verb. The answer to the question is the subject. Thus:—*What make honey?* Answer, *bees*. *Bees* is the subject.

How can you find the object of a verb?

By asking a question with *whom* or *what* after the verb. The answer to the question is the object. Thus:—*Bees make what?* Answer, *honey*. *Honey* is the object.

What else besides verbs have objects?

Prepositions, or words that show relations; as, *at*, *about*, *after*, *before*, *by*, *for*, *from*, *in*, *into*, *of*, *over*, *to*, *with*, *without*.

Give examples.

At home ; *home* is the object of the preposition *at*.
For Jacob's son ; *son* is the object of the preposition *for*.

EXERCISE.

*Select the verbs ; tell the subject of each, and its object if it has one. Select the prepositions and their objects :—*Don Quixote was written by Cervantes in prison.—Necessity quickens invention.—Coaches made their way into England in the fifteenth century.—Without doubt, the ancients never used forks.—Malice seldom wants a mark.—Quicksilver is another name for mercury.—Indians traversed the whole continent, from the Atlantic to the Mississippi.

LESSON XX.

What properties have we found nouns to possess? What other property has the noun, to distinguish the relation of subject, object, &c.?

Case.

How many cases are there?

Three ; the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.

When is a noun in the Nominative Case?

A noun is in the **Nominative Case**,

I. When it is the subject of a verb ; as, "*Bees* make honey."

II. When it stands after a verb, and refers to the same thing as its subject ; as, "*Virgil* was a *Roman*."

III. When it is used independently, in an exclamation, address, &c. ; as, "*Heavens!* what a *sight!*" "*Ye men* of Athens!" "*The sun* having set, I returned." "*Our fathers*, where are they?"

When is a noun in the Possessive Case?

A noun is in the **Possessive Case**, when it modifies some other noun, and implies possession, origin, or fitness; as, *John's* hat, *goat's* hair, *men's* shoes.

How may the possessive case be known?

By the apostrophe ['].

When is a noun in the Objective Case?

A noun is in the **Objective Case**, when it is the object of a verb or preposition; as, "Bees make *honey*." "At *home*."

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns in the last Exercise. [Thus:—*Don Quixote* is a proper noun, in the third person, singular number, nominative case. *Cervantes* is a proper noun, in the third person, singular number, masculine gender, objective case.]

LESSON XXI.

Name the properties that belong to nouns. How many persons are there? Name them. How many numbers? Name them. How many genders? Name them. How many cases? Name them. In what case is an object? In what case is a subject? In what case is a noun that modifies another and implies possession?

What is meant by the Declension of a noun?

The process of carrying it through its several cases. Thus:—

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Dog,	dogs,	Sky,	skies,	Hero,	heroes,
<i>Poss.</i>	dog's,	dogs',	sky's,	skies',	hero's,	heroes',
<i>Obj.</i>	dog;	dogs.	sky;	skies.	hero;	heroes.
<i>Nom.</i>	Ox,	oxen,	Man,	men,	Julius,	—
<i>Poss.</i>	ox's,	oxen's,	man's,	men's,	Julius's,	—
<i>Obj.</i>	ox;	oxen.	man;	men.	Julius.	—

What do you observe respecting the objective case of these nouns?

It is like the nominative.

How is the possessive singular formed?

By appending an apostrophe and *s* ['s] to the nominative singular.

How is the possessive plural formed?

By appending 's to the nominative plural unless it already ends in *s*, in which case the apostrophe alone is added.

EXERCISE.

Decline rat; fly; pear; woman; grandchild; seraph; mouse; George; Cæsar.

Write the objective plural of sheep; die (a stamp); foot; deer; weak-fish; father-in-law; school-mistress; vertebra; man-servant; gymnasium; crisis; canto; sex; alkali; beau; ally; alley; journey; woman-singer.

Write the possessive singular, and then the possessive plural of cannon; German; boatman; landlady; girl; turkey; step-daughter; cherub; goose; fox; Russian; day; berry; ostrich.

LESSON XXII.

Name the parts of speech? Which of these have we been considering?

What is the second part of speech?

The Pronoun.

What is a Pronoun?

A **Pronoun** is a word used in stead of a noun.

Give an example.

"Sarah asked William to lend Sarah William's book." This is awkward. To avoid repeating the

proper nouns, we substitute the pronouns *her* and *his*:—"Sarah asked William to lend *her his* book."

How many classes of pronouns are there?

There are four classes of pronouns; Personal, Relative, Interrogative, and Adjective.

What properties belong to pronouns?

The same as to nouns,—person, number, gender if they denote things with life, and case.

EXERCISE.

Supply nouns in the nominative case; select the objects:—
 — often carry off chickens. Large — empty into the sea. — have to encounter many perils. — are made of iron. In the ocean are many —.

Supply nouns in the objective case; select the subjects:—
 Carpenters make —. Traders bring — from Africa. Earthquakes destroy many —. By reading —, men improve their —. The Laplanders keep — of reindeer about their —.

LESSON XXIII.

What is the second part of speech? How many classes of pronouns are there? Name them.

What is a Personal Pronoun?

A **Personal Pronoun** is one that simply represents a noun and determines its person, without introducing any other idea respecting it.

Name the simple personal pronouns.

The simple personal pronouns are,

I, first person, masculine gender if a male is denoted, feminine if a female.

Thou, second person, masculine gender if a male is denoted, feminine if a female.

He, third person, masculine gender.

She, third person, feminine gender.

It, third person, destitute of gender.

Decline the simple personals.

The simple personals are thus declined:—

FIRST PERSON.

SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	I,	we,		Thou,	you, ye,
<i>Poss.</i>	my, mine,	our, ours,		thy, thine,	your, yours,
<i>Obj.</i>	me ;	us.		thee ;	you, ye.

THIRD PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>		<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>		<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	He,	they,		She,	they,		It,	they,
<i>Poss.</i>	his,	{ their,		{ her,	their,		its,	{ their,
		{ theirs,		{ hers,	theirs,			{ theirs,
<i>Obj.</i>	him ;	them.		her,	them.		it ;	them.

EXERCISE.

State the person, number, gender when it is determined, and case. [Thus:—*I*, first, singular, nominative. *Him*, third, singular, masculine, objective.] *I* ; him ; thine ; me ; them ; her ; our ; its ; thee ; their ; she ; you ; mine ; yours ; us ; his ; ye ; thy ; it ; we ; my ; ours ; theirs ; thou ; your ; he ; they ; hers.

LESSON XXIV.

Name the four classes of pronouns. What is a personal pronoun ? Decline the simple personals.

How are the compound personals formed ?

The compound personals are formed of the pos-

sessive or objective case of the simple personals and the word *self*.

Name the compound personals.

Myself, plural *ourselves*, *ourselves*, 1st person.

Thyself, plural *yourselves*, *yourselves*, 2d person.

Himself, plural *themselves*, 3d, masculine.

Herself, plural *themselves*, 3d, feminine.

Itself, plural *themselves*, 3d, no gender.

What case do the compound personals lack?

They lack the possessive case, and have the same form in the objective as in the nominative.

EXERCISE.

Correct ours' ; theirs' ; it's ; your's ; his'n ; hern ; ourn ; yourn ; hisself ; themselves ; itsself ; theirn.

Supply the proper pronouns, and tell their person, number, gender when they have it, and case : Charles said that he had hurt —, but — do not think — was much injured. Paul has mislaid — book ; will — not try to find it for — ? George and Henry must have lost — way in the woods ; I can not find —. This book is —, that slate is —.

LESSON XXV.

In parsing fully, what must be done?

Rules must be given for the case of nouns and pronouns.

What general term includes both nouns and pronouns?

Substantives.

Recite Rule I., relating to the subject.

RULE I.—A substantive that is the subject of a verb is in the nominative case ; as, “ *Years* come and go.” “ *Lovest thou* me ?”

Recite Rule II., relating to substantives used independently.

RULE II.—A substantive used independently is in the nominative case.

“*Napoleon* having charged, the battle was decided.” “*Robert*, do not go.” “Ah! wretched *we*!” “The *bride*—what can I say of her?” *Napoleon*, *Robert*, *we*, and *bride*, are in the nominative independent.

Recite Rule III., for the possessive case.

RULE III.—A substantive that modifies a noun denoting a different person or thing, by implying possession, origin, or fitness, is in the possessive case; as, *my* hand; *Morse's* telegraph; *men's* shoes.

Recite Rule IV., relating to the object.

RULE IV.—A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case; as, Pity *us*; in *Egypt*.

PARSING FORMS.—Learn the following forms for parsing nouns and personal pronouns, and applying the above rules:—

I beg you, my son, think of the consequences.

I is a simple personal pronoun, in the first person, singular number, common gender, nominative case, the subject of the verb *beg*:—**Rule**, A substantive that is the subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

You is a simple personal pronoun, in the second person, plural number (used for the singular), masculine gender, objective case, the object of the verb *beg*:—**Rule**, A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

My is a simple personal pronoun, in the first person, singular number, common gender, possessive case, and modifies the noun *son*:—**Rule**, A substantive that modifies a noun denoting a different person or thing, by implying possession, origin, or fitness, is in the possessive case.

Son is a common noun, in the second person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative independent:—*Rule*, A substantive used independently is in the nominative case.

Consequences is a common noun, in the third person, plural number, objective case, the object of the preposition *of*:—*Rule*, A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns and personal pronouns according to the above models:—Cleopatra killed herself by the bite of an asp.—The boy—oh! where was he?—We thought he saw us.—Beavers build their lodge by some stream.—Day having dawned, they were soon on their journey.—Never amuse yourself at the expense of a friend.—I pray thee, neighbor, let not thy passions control thy reason.

LESSON XXVI.

Repeat Rule I. Rule II. Rule III. Rule IV. In what case is a modifying substantive that denotes possession, origin, or fitness? What else may a modifying noun denote?

Besides possession, origin, and fitness, a modifying noun may denote,

1. Time; as, "He went last *week*."
2. Direction; as, "He went *west*."
3. Extent; as, "An *inch* wide."
4. Quantity; as, "It measured a *bushel*."
5. Value; as, "It cost me a *dollar*."

In what case are these modifying nouns, *week*, *west*, &c.?

In the objective case.

Recite Rule V., relating to a modifying substantive.

RULE V.—A modifying substantive, denoting time, direction, extent, quantity, or value, often stands in the objective case without a preposition.

PARSING FORM.—*Cæsar lived nineteen centuries ago.*—*Goliath was nearly ten feet high.*

Centuries is a common noun, in the third person, plural number, objective case, denoting time:—*Rule*, A modifying substantive, denoting time, direction, extent, quantity, or value, often stands in the objective case without a preposition.

Feet is a common noun, in the third person, plural number, objective case, denoting extent:—*Rule*, A modifying substantive, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns and personal pronouns according to the models given:—The Pacific Ocean is 9000 miles long.—I expect to go home day after to-morrow.—Can you tell us, my young philosopher, why the magnetic needle points north?—Muslin a yard wide now costs forty cents a yard.—Good wheat weighs sixty pounds to the bushel.

LESSON XXVII.

When is one substantive said to be *in apposition* with another?

When one substantive is joined to another denoting the same person or thing, to explain or add to its meaning, it is said to be *in apposition* with the latter.

Give examples of nouns in apposition.

“Fulton, the inventor of steamboats;” *inventor* is in apposition with *Fulton*. “The prophet Samuel;” *prophet* is in apposition with *Samuel*.

In what case is a noun that is in apposition?

In the same case as the noun with which it is in apposition. *Inventor* is in the same case as *Fulton*; *prophet* is in the same case as *Samuel*.

Recite Rule VI., relating to substantives in apposition.

RULE VI.—One substantive joined to another denoting the same person or thing, is in the same case.

Recite Rule VII., relating to a verb that has no object.

RULE VII.—A verb that has no object takes the same case after as before it, when both words refer to the same person or thing.

Give an example of Rule VII.

“Kosciusko was a Pole.” *Pole*, coming after the verb *was*, is in the same case as *Kosciusko*, which stands before it,—that is, the nominative.

PARSING FORMS.—*Samuel the prophet was the son of Hannah.*

Prophet is a common noun, in the third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, in apposition with *Samuel*:—*Rule*, One substantive joined to another denoting the same person or thing, is in the same case.

Son is a common noun, in the third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case after the verb *was*:—*Rule*, A verb that has no object takes the same case after as before it, when both words refer to the same person or thing.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns and personal pronouns:—History teaches us that tyrants are generally cowards.—Order is Heaven’s first law.—Linnæus, the great naturalist, was a Swede.—O Greece, my country, mother of heroes, where is thy glory now?—The sister of the astronomer Herschel was herself (*in apposition with sister*) a successful observer of the heavens.—Some of our modern orators think that they surpass Demosthenes himself.—Tasso was an Italian.



LESSON XXVIII.

How many parts of speech are there? Name the second. What is a pronoun? Name the different classes of pronouns.

What is a personal pronoun? Name the simple personals; the compound personals.

What is a Relative Pronoun?

A **Relative Pronoun** is one used to connect parts of a sentence, without change of form for the different persons and numbers.

“James, *who* was up early, saw the sun rise.”

Who is a relative; it connects *was up early* with the rest of the sentence.

Why are the relatives so called?

Because they *relate* to some word or words going before, called the Antecedent. *James* is the antecedent in the example just given.

How are the relative pronouns distinguished?

As Simple and Compound.

Name the simple relatives.

The simple relatives are *who*, *which*, *that*, *as*, and *what*.

Decline the simple relatives.

The plural of the simple relatives is like the singular. They are declined thus:—

	S. & P.	S. & P.	S. & P.	S. & P.	S. & P.
Nom.	Who,	Which,	That,	As,	What,
Poss.	whose,	whose,	—	—	—
Obj.	whom.	which.	that.	as.	what.

EXERCISE.

Select the relatives, and the antecedent of each. Parse the nouns and the personal pronouns:—It was Pope who wrote, “The proper study of mankind is man.”—Such as are inattentive to their business will not prosper.—I who speak, and you that listen, are alike mortal.—The dispensations which seem the hardest to bear, are often those that

do [*to*] us the most good.—The second king of the Plantagenet line was Richard I., whose surname was the Lion-hearted, and whom his exploits in Palestine have made illustrious.

LESSON XXIX.

Decline the simple personal pronouns. Decline the compound personals. Decline the simple relatives.

To what is the relative *who* applied?

Who is applied to persons, and animals and things personified: as, Men *who* dream; Pleasure, *who* smiles but to betray.

To what is the relative *which* applied?

Which is applied to animals and things: as, Dogs *which* bark; The sun, *which* shines for all.

To what is the relative *that* applied?

That is applied to persons, animals, and things: as, Men *that* dream; Dogs *that* bark; The sun *that* shines for all.

To what is the relative *as* applied?

As is applied to persons, animals, and things. It is used after *such*, *same*, *as many*, *so many*, *as much*, *so much*: thus, Such men *as* dream; As many *as* came.

To what is the relative *what* applied?

What is applied to things, and is equivalent to antecedent and relative; as, "Take *what* [*that which*] you wish."

Is *that* always a relative pronoun?

No, it is sometimes a conjunction; as, "He said *that* it would rain."

When *that* is a relative, *who*, *whom*, or *which*,

used in its place, will make sense ; “ All *that* [*who*] wear broadcloth are not gentlemen.”

In the expressions *as many as*, *as much as*, which *as* is the relative ?

The second ; the first *as* is an adverb.

EXERCISE.

Mention the antecedents, and correct the relatives. [Thus : *Woman* is the antecedent ; it denotes a person, and therefore the relative *which*, referring to it, should be changed to *who*—The woman *who* was at the well was a Samaritan.]

The woman *which* was at the well was a Samaritan.—There are many books *who* outlive their authors.—The cat, *who* at first seemed startled, soon took courage.—My only comforter was Hope, *which* bade me dry my tears.—Avoid such boys *who* use bad language.—There are few poets *which* manage to make a living by their poetry.

LESSON XXX.

Does a relative show its person and number by its form ?

No ; its form does not change when its person and number change.

How, then, can we tell the person and number of a relative ?

By looking at its antecedent, with which it agrees in person and number. Thus :—

I <i>who</i> (1st person, singular).	We <i>who</i> (1st person, plural).
Thou <i>who</i> (2d person, singular).	You <i>who</i> (2d person, plural).
He <i>who</i> (3d person, singular).	They <i>who</i> (3d person, plural).

Recite Rule VIII., for the agreement of the relative.

RULE VIII.—A relative agrees with its antecedent in person and number.

Does the relative agree with its antecedent in *case*?

No; in case it is independent of its antecedent.

Show this by an example.

“The temple was built by Solomon, who was the son of David.” The antecedent *Solomon*, being the object of the preposition *by*, is in the objective case; but the relative *who*, being the subject of the verb *was*, is in the nominative.

In parsing a relative, how many rules must be given?

Two: Rule VIII., for its agreement, and whatever other rule is required, for its case.

What has the force of the compound relatives, and is parsed like them, as shown in the next lesson.

EXERCISE.

Parse the relative pronouns in the last two Exercises. [Thus:—It was Pope who wrote, “The proper study of mankind is man.” *Who* is a simple relative pronoun, and has *Pope* for its antecedent, with which it agrees in the third person, singular number—*Rule*, A relative agrees with its antecedent in person and number; in the nominative case, the subject of the verb *wrote*—*Rule*, A substantive that is the subject of a verb is in the nominative case.]

LESSON XXXI.

How many kinds of relatives are there? Name the simple relatives.

Name the compound relative pronouns.

Whoever, whosoever, applied only to persons.

Whichever, whichsoever, applied to persons, animals, and things.

Whatever, whatsoever, applied only to things.

Decline the compound relatives.

None of the compound relatives change, except *whoever* and *whosoever*. They are alike in both numbers, and are declined thus:—

	<i>Sing. and Plural.</i>	<i>Sing. and Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Whoever,	Whosoever,
<i>Poss.</i>	whosever,	whosoever,
<i>Obj.</i>	whomever.	whomsoever.

To what is a compound relative generally equivalent?

Like *what*, a compound relative is generally equivalent to an antecedent and a simple relative; as, "*Whoever* [that is, *any one who*] is low-spirited should learn to skate." "Take *whichever* [*either that*] you choose."

How many cases do *what* and the compound relatives represent?

Two cases; one as antecedent, and the other as relative. When these cases are different, two rules must be given in parsing.

PARSING FORMS.—*Be content with what you have.*
—*Bring whoever is there.*

What is a simple relative pronoun, equivalent to antecedent and relative; in the third person, singular number; as antecedent, in the objective case, the object of the preposition *with*; as relative, in the objective case, the object of the verb *have*:—*Rule*, A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

Whoever is a compound relative pronoun, equivalent to antecedent and relative, in the third person, singular number; as antecedent, in the objective case, the object of the verb *bring*—*Rule*, A substantive that is the object of a verb, &c.; as relative, in the nominative case, the subject of the verb *is*—*Rule*, A substantive that is the subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns and pronouns:—Accept with gratitude whatever (*two rules*) is sent from Heaven.—Whomsoever (*one rule*) we find true, we trust.—Whoever (*one rule*) slanders my friend, slanders me.—Take not what (*two rules*) belongs not to you.—Let her have whichever (*two rules*) suits her.—Whoever (*one rule*) loses, is apt to complain.

LESSON XXXII.

Name the different classes of pronouns. What is a personal pronoun? What is a relative pronoun?

What is an Interrogative Pronoun?

An **Interrogative Pronoun** is one used for asking a question, in answering a question indefinitely, and in similar indefinite expressions.

Questions.—Who did it? Which was it? What is truth?

Indefinite Answers.—I know not *who* did it, *what* truth is.

Indefinite Expressions.—Find out *who* did it, *which* it was.

Name the interrogative pronouns.

The interrogatives are *who*, *which*, and *what*.

How are the interrogatives declined?

Like the corresponding relatives; see page 35.

When are *who* and *which* relatives, and when interrogatives?

When *who* and *which* relate to an antecedent, they are relatives; when not, interrogatives.

When is *what* a relative pronoun, and when an interrogative?

The pronoun *what* is a relative, when equivalent to *that which*; when not, it is an interrogative.

When a question is answered by a single word, how can you find the case of that word?

By supplying the words understood. Thus:—

“Who succeeded Jefferson? Madison.” That is, Madison succeeded Jefferson; *Madison* is in the nominative case, the subject of *succeeded* understood.

“Whom did Madison succeed? Jefferson.” That is, Madison succeeded Jefferson; *Jefferson* is in the objective case, the object of *succeeded* understood.

PARSING FORM.—*Whom saw you?—I would like to know whose books these are.*

Whom is an interrogative pronoun, in the third person, singular number, objective case, the object of the verb *saw*:—*Rule*, A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

Whose is an interrogative pronoun, in the third person, singular number, possessive case, and modifies the noun *books*:—*Rule*, A substantive that modifies a noun, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns and pronouns:—What is a pronoun?—Whose son was David? Jesse's.—Do you know whom Elizabeth succeeded? Yes; Queen Mary.—Which do you like best, arithmetic (in apposition with *which*) or grammar?—Who invented the telescope? Jansen or Galileo, I do not know which.

LESSON XXXIII.

What is a personal pronoun? A relative pronoun? An interrogative pronoun?

What are all pronouns not included in the above classes called?

Adjective Pronouns.

How are Adjective Pronouns divided?

Into three classes:—

1. **Demonstratives**, which point out with precision the objects to which they refer:—*This, that, former, latter, both, same.*

2. **Distributives**, which represent objects as taken separately:—*Each, every, either, neither*.

3. **Indefinites**, which refer to objects generally, without specifying any in particular:—*One, none, other, another, some, all, any, such*.

Are these words ever used *with* nouns, and not in stead of them?

Yes; as, *this* book, *every* person. In that case they are adjectives.

How are the adjective pronouns declined?

Most of the adjective pronouns do not change. *This, that, one, and other*, are declined as follows. *Another* is declined in the singular like *other*, but has no plural.

S.	P.	S.	P.	S.	P.	S.	P.
N. This,	these,	That,	those,	One,	ones,	Other,	others,
P. ———	———	———	———	one's,	ones',	other's,	others',
O. this;	these.	that;	those.	one;	ones.	other;	others.

PARSING FORM.—*They loved each other*.

Each is an adjective pronoun, in the third person, singular number, nominative case, in apposition with *they*:—*Rule*, One substantive joined to another denoting the same person or thing, is in the same case.

Other is an adjective pronoun, in the third person, singular number, objective case, the object of the verb *loved*:—*Rule*, The object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns and pronouns:—Teach me to feel another's woe.—Demosthenes and Cicero were both great orators; the former was a Greek, the latter a Roman.—Some are timid, others rash; those lose all by their hesitation, these by their haste.—Let us do good to one (in apposition with *us*) another (object of *to*).—Such as are virtuous, are happy.

LESSON XXXIV.

A REVIEW.

What is a noun? What is a common noun? What is a proper noun? Name the four properties of nouns. How many persons are there? How many numbers? How many genders? How many cases? What does the first person denote? The second? The third? In what person are most nouns?

What does the singular number denote? The plural? How do most nouns form their plural? How do nouns in *s* form their plural? Nouns in *y*? Mention some nouns that have no plural. Mention some that have no singular. What does the masculine gender denote? The feminine?

What nouns have no gender? In what three ways are feminine nouns distinguished from their corresponding masculines? What does the nominative case denote? The possessive? The objective? Which two of these cases have the same form? Name some of the most common prepositions.

EXERCISE.

*Give the pronoun called for:—*1. Simple personal, in the first person, singular, objective (*me*). 2. Simple personal, second, plural, possessive. 3. Compound personal, third, singular, feminine, objective. 4. A simple relative, in the objective. 5. A compound relative, in the possessive. 6. Compound personal, first, plural, objective. 7. Simple personal, third, plural, masculine, nominative. 8. Compound personal, third, singular, masculine, nominative.

LESSON XXXV.

A REVIEW.

What is a pronoun? Why are pronouns used? What properties do pronouns possess? Name the four classes of pronouns. What is a personal pronoun? What is a relative pronoun? What

is an interrogative pronoun? What classes are included under the head of adjective pronouns?

How are the compound personals formed? What case is wanting in the compound personals? Which of the simple relatives are not found in the possessive case? What pronouns have the same form as the simple relatives? Name the compound relatives.

Which of the adjective pronouns are declined? Name those that are not declined. When do these words become adjectives? What does the word *substantive* include? Repeat the eight Rules. Which of these relates to nouns in apposition?

EXERCISE.

Supply pronouns of the class indicated:—(Interrogative) told you that Mary had hurt (compound personal)?—The Hottentots anoint (compound personal) with rancid oil.—When you have read the book, put (simple personal) on the shelf, or else give it to (simple personal) brother.—Some of these apples are larger than (adjective pronoun); (adjective pronoun) of them are ripe.—(Interrogative) of you would lay down (simple personal) life for (simple personal) neighbor?

LESSON XXXVI.

Name the parts of speech. Which is the first? The second? The third?

What are the Articles?

The **Articles** are the words **the** and **an** or **a**, used before other words to limit their meaning; as, *the* rose, *an* English rose, *a* white rose.

How are the two articles distinguished?

The is called the **Definite Article**. It is used with nouns in both numbers, and generally denotes a particular object or objects; as, *the* rose, *the* roses.

An, or **a**, is called the **Indefinite Article**. It is

used with nouns in the singular only, and denotes one object but no particular one; as, *a* rose.

When must *an* be used as the indefinite article?

An must be used before words commencing with a vowel sound; as, *an* ant, *an* umbrella, *an* honor.

When must *a* be used as the indefinite article?

A must be used before words commencing with a consonant sound; as, *a* bird, *a* wonder, *a* year, *a* unit, *a* humor.

Must *an* or *a* be used before words commencing with *w* and *y*?

W and *y* beginning words are consonants. *A* must therefore be used before words commencing with these letters or their sounds.

Why do we say *an* heir, but *a* humor?

H is silent in both these words. *Heir*, commencing with a vowel sound, takes *an*; *humor*, commencing with a consonant sound, takes *a*.

Recite Rule IX., relating to the article.

RULE IX.—An Article relates to the word whose meaning it limits.

PARSING FORM.—*A friend of the people.*

A is the indefinite article, and relates to *friend*:—Rule, An article relates to the word whose meaning it limits.

The is the definite article, and relates to *people*:—Rule, An article, &c.

EXERCISE.

Supply the proper indefinite article. Then parse the nouns, pronouns, and articles: — aunt and — uncle are not quite so near as — father and — mother. I saw — hen, — ewe, and — wonderfully fat colt, in — meadow, by the river. We drove about for — hour in — one-horse wagon, looking for — house with —

honeysuckle by the door; but not — human habitation did we find. Here is — humble and at the same time — honest man.

LESSON XXXVII.

What is the fourth part of speech?

The Adjective.

When I say *those five ripe apples*, by what is the word *apples* modified?

By the words *those*, *five*, and *ripe*. *Those* tells us which apples are meant; *five* tells how many apples; *ripe* tells what kind of apples. Words like these, joined to a noun or pronoun, are called Adjectives.

What is an Adjective?

An **Adjective** is a word used to qualify or limit the meaning of a substantive; as, *sweet* roses, *happy* thou.

Is the subject to which an adjective relates ever understood?

It is; as when we speak of *the good*, *the living*, meaning *good men*, *living persons*.

Into how many classes are adjectives divided?

Adjectives are divided into four classes; Proper, Numeral, Pronominal, and Common.

What is a Proper Adjective?

A **Proper Adjective** is one having the form of, or derived from, a proper noun; as, *Boston* crackers, *Irish* melodies.

Proper adjectives commence with capitals.

What is a Numeral Adjective?

A **Numeral Adjective** is one that denotes a definite number; as, *three* days, the *third* watch, a *threefold* gain.

What are the Pronominal Adjectives?

The Pronominal Adjectives are words having the form of certain pronouns, but used *with* nouns, and not *in stead* of them; as, *this* man, *all* things, *every* day, *what* a scene.

Name the pronominal adjectives.

The pronominal adjectives are *which*, *what*, *whichever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *former*, *latter*, *both*, *same*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *none*, *other*, *another*, *some*, *all*, *any*, *such*.

What is the fourth class of adjectives?

Common Adjectives, which embrace all not contained in the above classes.

What may a common adjective express?

A common adjective may express,

1. Quality; as, *handsome*, *idle*, *red-hot*, *ever-to-be-remembered*.
2. Quantity; as, *much* labor, *money enough*, *a whole* month.
3. Material; as, *a gold* crown, *a golden* crown, *wooden* pegs.
4. Time; as, *daily*, *weekly*, *annual*, *subsequent*, *everlasting*.
5. Situation; as, *the above* rule, *the off* horse, *the under* side.
6. An indefinite number; as, *several*, *sundry*, *few*, *many*.

EXERCISE.

Select the adjectives; tell their class, and what they relate to. [Thus:—*No* is a common adjective, and relates to *man*.] *Owe no* man; *French politeness*; *gold and silver* medals; *the former* country; *five white* mice; *these diligent* scholars; *the Memphis* boat; *every thirteenth* soldier; *the Monumental* City; *a nut-brown* maid; *several large* Scotch herrings; *those never-to-be-forgotten* words of the *Massachusetts* patriot; *a fourfold* increase; *three hundred* dollars (take *three hundred* together).

LESSON XXXVIII.

What is a final letter? Name the vowels. Name the consonants.

"John is tall, James is taller, but George is the tallest." What are we told in this sentence?

That the quality of tallness belongs to John, James, and George, in different degrees.

In what words are these different degrees implied?

In the adjectives *tall*, *taller*, *tallest*. Hence, by varying the form of an adjective, we may make it express a quality in different degrees.

What is said of an adjective thus varied in form?

It is said to be *compared*.

How many degrees of comparison are there?

Three; the Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

What is the Positive Degree?

The **Positive** is the degree expressed by an adjective in its simplest form; as, "He is *wise* and *happy*."

What is the Comparative Degree?

The **Comparative** is a higher degree than some other or others with which it is compared; as, "He is *wiser* and *happier* than I."

What is the Superlative Degree?

The **Superlative** is the highest degree of all that are compared; as, "He is the *wisest* and *happiest* of us all."

How are the Comparative and the Superlative Degree formed?

The Comparative Degree is formed by adding *er*, and the Superlative by adding *est*, to the Positive; as, *tall*, *taller*, *tallest*; *tender*, *tenderer*, *tenderest*.

What changes must sometimes be made in the positive, before adding *er* and *est*?

1. Final *e* must be rejected; as, rude, rud-er, rud-est.

2. Final *y*, preceded by a consonant, must be changed to *i*; as, holy, holier, holiest.

3. A final consonant, preceded by a single vowel, must be doubled; as, wet, wetter, wettest.

EXERCISE.

Write the three degrees of warm; sweet (no doubling, because two vowels precede *t*); merry; cold; pale; short; hot; pretty; slow; fine; cool; fit; plain; silly; vile; flat; funny; great; handsome; dirty; clear; noble; witty; wide; long; fat; quick; rare.

LESSON XXXIX.

May all adjectives be compared?

No. Many adjectives of one syllable are compared, and some of two syllables; but none of more than two. We say *prettier*, *prettiest*; but not *peacefuler*, *glorousest*.

What whole classes of adjectives are not compared?

As a general rule, proper, numeral, and pronominal adjectives are not compared.

What common adjectives are not compared?

Those whose meaning does not admit of different degrees; as, *chief*, *daily*, *no*.

What other way is there of expressing different degrees, besides comparing the adjective?

Using the adverbs *more*, *most*, *less*, *least*, &c. Thus, we may say *more pleasant* in stead of *pleasanter*, *most pleasant* for *pleasantest*.

When only is an adjective said to be compared ?

When it takes *er* and *est*.

Recite Rule X., relating to the adjective.

RULE X.—An adjective relates to the substantive whose meaning it qualifies or limits.

How may the substantive to which an adjective relates be found ?

By asking a question with *who* or *what*.

Thus:—"The elephant is the *largest* of beasts." *Question*. The largest *what* of beasts? *Answer*. The largest *beast* of beasts. *Largest* relates to *beast* understood.

How must we parse an adjective ?

To parse an adjective, state its class ; if it can be compared, compare it and mention its degree ; tell what it relates to, and repeat Rule X.

PARSING FORM.—*June roses are the sweetest of flowers.*

June is a proper adjective, and relates to *roses*:—*Rule*, An adjective relates to the substantive whose meaning it qualifies or limits.

Sweetest is a common adjective ; *sweet*, *sweeter*, *sweetest* ; in the superlative degree, and relates to *flowers* understood:—*Rule*, An adjective relates, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, articles, and adjectives:—The diamond is the brightest and most valuable of precious stones.—These smugglers introduce great quantities of Brussels lace and French brandy.—The purer air is, the healthier.—Few respect a tyrant, and still fewer love him.—Kind deeds and gentle words are finer ornaments than golden trinkets (subject of *are* understood) or jewels of great price.—Moses was the meekest of men.

LESSON XL.

What is an adjective? Name and define the three degrees.
What is the regular mode of forming the comparative degree?
The superlative?

Compare the irregular adjectives.

Some adjectives are compared irregularly:—

<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Sup.</i>	<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Sup.</i>
Bad, evil, ill,	worse,	worst.	Many,	more,	most.
Good,	better,	best.	Much,	more,	most.
Little,	less, lesser,	least.	Near,	nearer,	nearest, next.

Late and *old* take two forms:—

Late,	{ later,	latest.	Old,	{ older,	oldest.
	{ latter,	last.		{ elder,	eldest.

Compare some adjectives that make a superlative in *most*.

The following make a superlative in *most*:—

<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Sup.</i>
Far,	farther,	farthest, farmost, farthermost.
Fore,	former,	foremost, first.
Hind,	hinder,	hindmost, hindermost.
Low,	lower,	lowest, lowermost.
—	Inner,	inmost, innermost.
—	Outer,	outmost, outermost.
—	Upper,	upmost, uppermost.
Front,	—	frontmost.
North,	—	northmost, &c.

In what degree are *superior*, *inferior*, *anterior*, *posterior*, *prior*, *ulterior*, *junior*, and *senior*?

In the comparative degree. They have neither positive nor superlative.

How are a few compound adjectives compared?

By varying the first of the simple words that compose them; as,

Good-natured,	better-natured,	best-natured.
Bright-eyed,	brighter-eyed,	brightest-eyed.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, articles, and adjectives. [Thus:—*Superior* is a common adjective, in the comparative degree; positive and superlative wanting; it belongs to *view*:—*Rule*, An adjective, &c.] There is a superior view from the topmost point of the cliff.—Let us have less talk and more work.—There are few better-tempered or warmer-hearted men than my eldest brother.—In my innermost heart, I could not help thinking my senior partner an ill-natured man.—The oldest friends are the best.

LESSON XLI.

What is the first part of speech? The second? The third? The fourth? The fifth?

How many ways of affirming a thing are there?

Four. When we affirm, we may *assert*, *exclaim*, *ask*, or *command*. Thus:—

<i>Assertions.</i>	Carlo <i>barks</i> .	Carlo <i>is</i> cross.
<i>Exclamations.</i>	How Carlo <i>barks</i> !	How Carlo <i>sleeps</i> !
<i>Questions.</i>	<i>Can</i> Carlo <i>bark</i> ?	<i>Has</i> Carlo <i>been hurt</i> ?
<i>Commands.</i>	Carlo, <i>do not bark</i> .	Carlo, <i>eat</i> your meat.

What are words that affirm called?

Words that affirm are called Verbs; as, *barks*, *can bark*, &c., in the above examples.

What is a Verb?

A Verb is a word or words used to affirm an action or a state.

Of how many words may a verb consist?

Of as many as four; as, "*He might have been hurt.*"

What is the subject of a verb? (*See Lesson XIX.*) How may the subject of a verb be found? Is the subject ever understood?

It is, particularly in sentences that express a command; as, "Carlo, do not [*you*] bark." *You* understood is the subject.

With regard to their meaning, how are verbs distinguished?

As Transitive and Intransitive.

What is a Transitive Verb?

A **Transitive Verb** is one that affirms an action exerted on some person or thing; as, "Sarah *broke* the bottle." "The bottle *is broken*." Here the breaking is exerted on the bottle.

What is an Intransitive Verb?

An **Intransitive Verb** is one that affirms a state, or an action not exerted on any person or thing; as, "Sarah *is happy*." "Sarah *wept*."

May the same word be a transitive verb in one sentence, and intransitive in another?

It may. "He *turned* his face;" *turned* is transitive, because it has an object, *face*. "He *turned*;" *turned* is intransitive, because it has no object.

EXERCISE.

Select the verbs; state whether they are transitive or intransitive; mention the subject of each, and, when the verb is transitive, its object:—

The Saxons sailed to Britain, effected a landing, seized on the best parts of the island, and drove the inhabitants to the mountain fastnesses.—Go [*thou*] and sin no more.—Sink or swim, survive or perish, I am for the Declaration [that is, *whether I sink or swim*].—Whatever we see, hear, taste, touch, or smell, is called matter.—Visit the sick, help the poor, comfort the afflicted.—Know thyself.—Bears can be taught to dance.—God has promised to bless children that honor their parents.

LESSON XLII.

How may the subject of a transitive verb be represented ?

The subject of a transitive verb may be represented in two ways :—

1. As acting. “Bees *make* honey.”
2. As acting upon. “*Money is made* by bees.”

How are these forms of transitive verbs distinguished ?

When its subject is represented as acting, the verb is said to be in the Active Voice.

When its subject is represented as acted upon, the verb is said to be in the Passive Voice.

In what voice is *make* in the above example ? *Is made* ? What verbs have no voice ?

Intransitive verbs, for their subjects can never be represented as acted upon. Their form corresponds with that of a transitive verb in the active voice.

Besides voice, what properties have verbs ?

Four ; Mood, Tense, Person, and Number.

What is Mood ?

Mood is that property of the verb which distinguishes the *manner* in which it affirms.

How many moods are there ?

There are five moods ; the Indicative, the Potential, the Subjunctive, the Imperative, and the Infinitive.

EXERCISE.

In the last Exercise, select the verbs that have voice, and tell what voice they are in.

Supply intransitive verbs ; point out the subject of each :
 Pigeons — rapidly. Rain — from the clouds. Pekin — the capital of China. The Hottentots — in Africa. Bananas — in tropical regions. Most boys — to play.

Supply transitive verbs; point out the subject and the object of each: Fashion — many followers. Sheep — wool. Dogs — their masters. Fulton — steamboats. Travellers — some strange stories. — the laws; — virtue.

LESSON XLIII.

What is a verb? A transitive verb? An intransitive verb? What verbs have voice? What other properties have verbs? Name the moods.

What is Tense?

Tense is that property of the verb which distinguishes the *time* of what it affirms.

How many tenses has the Indicative Mood?

The Indicative Mood has six tenses; the Present, the Imperfect, the Perfect, the Pluperfect, the First Future, and the Second Future.

Tell what each tense denotes, and give examples.

The Indicative Present affirms that an action is taking place, or a state existing, at the present time; as, *I depart, I am.*

The Indicative Imperfect affirms that an action took place, or a state existed, at some past time; as, *I departed, I was.*

The Indicative Perfect affirms a past action or state as completed at the present time; as, *I have departed, I have been.*

The Indicative Pluperfect affirms a past action or state as completed at or before some other past time; as, *I had departed, I had been.*

The Indicative First Future affirms that an action

is about to take place, or a state to exist; as, *I shall depart, I shall be.*

The Indicative Second Future affirms a future action or state as about to be completed at or before some other future time; as, *I shall have departed, I shall have been.*

Carry the verb *love* through these tenses of the indicative.

Pres. I love.

Plu. I had loved.

Imp. I loved.

1 *Fu.* I shall love.

Perf. I have loved.

2 *Fu.* I shall have loved.

Of what tense is *have* the sign? *Had?* *Shall?* *Shall have?*
What are these words called?

Auxiliaries.

EXERCISE.

Carry the verb walk through the tenses of the indicative mood; the verb touch.

*Select the verbs; tell their mood and tense:—*I shall run. I have slept. I turned and gazed. I had answered. By Tuesday I shall have finished the book. Every night I dream. You shall go, he shall remain. They had started.

LESSON XLIV.

What is mood? How many moods are there? How many tenses in the indicative mood? Name them.

How many tenses in the Potential Mood?

Four; the Present, the Imperfect, the Perfect, and the Pluperfect.

What tenses are wanting in the Potential Mood?

The two futures. Future time is sometimes denoted by the Present and the Imperfect Potential;

as, "You *may go* to-morrow." "He said he *would go* to-morrow."

What do verbs in the potential mood generally imply?

Permission, possibility, ability, necessity, determination, or obligation.

Carry the verb *love* through the tenses of the potential.

Pres. I may, can, must, or need love.

Imp. I might, could, would, or should love.

Perf. I may, can, must, or need have loved.

Plu. I might, could, would, or should have loved.

Name the auxiliaries of the potential present. Of the potential perfect. What is the difference between them? Mention the auxiliaries of the potential imperfect. Of the potential pluperfect. What is the difference between them?

Of what tense is *may* the sign? *May have?* *Could?* *Could have?* *Must?* *Should?* *Need?* *Might have?* *Can have?* *Should have?* *Must have?* *Must?* *Might?*

EXERCISE.

Carry the verb *walk* through the tenses of the potential mood; the verb *touch*.

Select the verbs; state whether they are transitive or intransitive; tell their mood and tense:—You must be silent.—They may have returned.—He need not say a word.—Cæsar should have paused.—We can not explain all things.—They need not have failed.—You should remember that the best men may do wrong.

LESSON XLV.

What is the Subjunctive Mood used to express?

1. A condition; as, "If thou *wish* it, I will remain."
2. A supposition; as, "Though He *slay* me, yet will I trust in Him."
3. A wish · as, "Oh that he *were* there!"

How many tenses has the Subjunctive Mood ?

Two ; the Present and the Imperfect.

Give the two subjunctive tenses of the verb *love*.

Sub. Pres. If I *love*. *Sub. Imp.* If I *loved*.

What generally precedes a verb in the subjunctive ?

If, that, though, lest, unless, or some other conjunction. But these conjunctions may be followed by the indicative or the potential.

What does the Imperative Mood express ?

A command, an entreaty, an exhortation, or permission ; as, “*Do not talk.*” “*Stay till Monday.*”

How many tenses has the Imperative Mood ?

But one, the Present ; as, “*Love thou.*”

What is generally the subject of a verb in the imperative ?

Thou or *you* understood. “*Do not [thou] talk.*”
“*Stay [you] till Monday.*”

EXERCISE.

Give the subjunctive and the imperative mood of the verb walk ; of the verb touch.

*Parse the nouns, pronouns, and adjectives. Select the verbs ; tell their mood, tense, and subject :—*If thou be guilty, I will disown thee.—Oh that there were no such thing as war [*is*] !—If you loved me, I would not complain.—Look before you leap.—Have a care lest thou fall.—Keep thy shop, and thy shop will keep thee.

LESSON XLVI.

What properties have verbs besides mood and tense ?

Person and Number.

On what do the person and number of a verb depend ?

On the person and number of its subject.

I pray ;—*pray* is 1st, sing., because its subject *I* is 1st, sing.
Thou prayest ;—*prayest* is 2d, sing., because *thou* is 2d, sing.
He prays ;—*prays* is 3d, sing., because *he* is 3d, sing.
We pray ;—*pray* is 1st, plural, because *we* is 1st, plural.
You pray ;—*pray* is 2d, plural, because *you* is 2d, plural.
They pray ;—*pray* is 3d, plural, because *they* is 3d, plural.

What is a verb that has person and number called ?

A Finite Verb.

In what mood is a verb that has no person and number ?

In the Infinitive Mood.

What does the Infinitive Mood express ?

An action or state not limited to a subject.

How many tenses has the Infinitive Mood ?

Two : the Present, which expresses an uncompleted action or state ; and the Perfect, which expresses one that is completed.

Give these two tenses of the verb *love*.

Inf. Pres. To love. *Inf. Perf.* To have loved.

Observe that *to* is the sign of the infinitive.

Which of the five moods may be used in asking questions ?

The indicative and potential only ; as, "*Shall falsehood triumph ? Can truth perish ?*"

EXERCISE.

Tell the person and number of each verb in the last Exercise.

Select the verbs ; tell their mood and tense :—The diligent love to learn.—Try to do better than you ever have done.—Senator Wilkes was to have addressed the meeting.—It is not right to remember injuries and to forget favors.—To have succeeded in this would have rewarded me sufficiently.

" 'Tis not the whole of life to live,
 Nor all of death to die."

LESSON XLVII.

He thanked his host, and took his leave.

Thanking his host, he took his leave.

What difference do you observe in these sentences?

They convey the same idea, but the first *affirms* the thanking, while the second *assumes* it.

What is the word *thanking*, which assumes the action, called?

A Participle. Participles belong to verbs.

What is a Participle?

A Participle is a form of the verb that generally qualifies or limits the meaning of a substantive, by assuming some action or state in connection with it.

How many participles are there?

Three,—the Present, the Perfect, and the Compound Perfect; as,

Pres. Loving.

Perf. Loved.

Comp. Perf. Having loved.

With what must a participle not be confounded?

With an adjective having the same form. Both modify substantives; but the participle, in addition, implies an action or state, and may govern an object like a finite verb. Thus:—

Adjectives.—A travelling clerk; an amusing story; respected friend; withered flowers.

Participles.—A clerk travelling in Georgia; amusing us with a story; respected by all; flowers withered by the heat.

Is a participle ever used without a substantive?

Yes, and it is then said to be used independently; as, “Generally speaking, murder will out.”

Of what is a participle used independently often the object?

Of a preposition; as, “the art of reading well”.

EXERCISE.

Give the two infinitive tenses and the three participles of the verb walk ; of the verb touch.

*Select the verbs ; tell what mood and tense each is in, or what participle it is ; mention the substantive that each participle relates to :—*By writing often, we learn to write well.—Elizabeth having died, James I. succeeded to the throne.—Though surrounded by his guards, the tyrant, tormented by a guilty conscience, never knows what it is to be at ease.—After learning much, we find out how little we know.—The necessity of practising self-control is obvious.

LESSON XLVIII.

What is meant by *conjugating* a verb ?

Carrying it through its moods, tenses, persons, and numbers.

How do we distinguish the persons in conjugating ?

By prefixing the pronouns *I, thou, he*, in the singular ; *we, you, they*, in the plural.

Do these words form part of the verb ?

No ; they must be parsed separately.

Go through the indicative mood of the intransitive verb BE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Person.</i>	1. I am,	1. We are,
	2. Thou art,	2. You are,
	3. He is ;	3. They are.

*Imperfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I was,
2. Thou wast *or* wert,
3. He was ;

Plural.

1. We were,
2. You were,
3. They were.

Perfect Tense.

1. I have been,
2. Thou hast been,
3. He has been ;

1. We have been,
2. You have been,
3. They have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

1. I had been,
2. Thou hadst been,
3. He had been ;

1. We had been,
2. You had been,
3. They had been.

First Future Tense.

1. I shall *or* will be,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be,
3. He shall *or* will be ;

1. We shall *or* will be,
2. You shall *or* will be,
3. They shall *or* will be.

Second Future Tense.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall <i>or</i> will have been, | 1. We shall <i>or</i> will have been, |
| 2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt have been, | 2. You shall <i>or</i> will have been, |
| 3. He shall <i>or</i> will have been ; | 3. They shall <i>or</i> will have been. |

EXERCISE.

*Turn each verb in italics into a participle, and by omitting the conjunction or subject complete the sentence. [Thus:—The enemy *ravaged* the country and departed.—*Changed*. The enemy, *having ravaged* the country, departed.]*

Cleopatra *lost* her kingdom and her lover, and killed herself.—Columbus *knew* how to swim, and escaped with his life.—Before you *proceed* too far, be sure you are right.—If we *try* to injure others, we injure ourselves.—When the rain *ceased*, we departed.—Gen. Taylor *died*, and Millard Fillmore became president.

LESSON XLIX.

Recite Rule XI., for the agreement of a finite verb.

RULE XI.—A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

PARSING FORM.—*Time changes all things, and we too must change.*

Changes is a transitive verb, in the active voice, indicative mood, present tense, third person, singular number, and agrees with its subject *time* :—*Rule*, A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

Must change is an intransitive verb, in the potential mood, present tense, first person, plural number, and agrees with its subject *we* :—*Rule*, A verb agrees, &c.

Give the potential mood of the verb BE.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I may, can, must, or need be,
2. Thou mayst,* canst, must, or needst* be,
3. He may, can, must, or need be;

Plural.

1. We may, can, must, or need be,
2. You may, can, must, or need be,
3. They may, can, must, or need be.

Imperfect Tense.

1. I might, could, would, or should be,
2. Thou mightst,* couldst,* wouldst,* or shouldst* be,
3. He might, could, would, or should be;

1. We might, could, would, or should be,
2. You might, could, would, or should be,
3. They might, could, would, or should be.

* With or without e; *mayst* or *mayest*, *needst* or *needest*, &c.

*Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I may, can, must, *or* need have been,
2. Thou mayst, canst, must, *or* needst have been,
3. He may, can, must, *or* need have been ;

Plural.

1. We may, can, must, *or* need have been,
2. You may, can, must, *or* need have been,
3. They may, can, must, *or* need have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

1. I might, could, would, *or* should have been,
2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, *or* shouldst have been,
3. He might, could, would, *or* should have been ;

1. We might, could, would, *or* should have been,
2. You might, could, would, *or* should have been,
3. They might, could, would, *or* should have been.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, articles, adjectives, and verbs :

—All men are mortal.—Hannibal was a Carthaginian.—Will you be there?—He need not be afraid, for he has been faithful in performing his duty.—May you be happy!—They might have been sure that she would be there.—I must have been asleep.

LESSON L.

Has a verb in the infinitive any subject, person, or number ?

How may a verb in the infinitive be used ?

A verb in the infinitive may be used,

1. As the subject of a finite verb ; as, “To err is human.” The infinitive *to err* is the subject of the finite verb *is*.

2. To limit the meaning of some other word ; as, “I wish to go, for it is my duty to do so.” *To go*

limits the meaning of the verb *wish* ; *to do* limits the meaning of the noun *duty*.

3. An infinitive may be used independently ; as, “ *To speak* plainly, I suspect you.”

In parsing, what rule must be given for the infinitive ?

RULE XII.—A verb in the infinitive is used as a subject, or limits the meaning of some other word, or stands independently in the sentence.

PARSING FORM.—*To tell the truth, I take you to be a rogue.*

To tell is a transitive verb, in the active voice, infinitive mood, present tense, used independently :—*Rule*, A verb in the infinitive is used as a subject, or limits the meaning of some other word, or stands independently in the sentence.

To be is an intransitive verb, in the infinitive mood, present tense, and limits the meaning of the verb *take* :—*Rule*, A verb in the infinitive is used as a subject, &c.

Give the subjunctive mood, the imperative, infinitive, and participles, of the verb **BE**.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I be,
2. If thou be,
3. If he be ;

Plural.

1. If we be,
2. If you be,
3. If they be.

Imperfect Tense.

1. If I were,
2. If thou were,
3. If he were ;

1. If we were,
2. If you were,
3. If they were.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. Be I,	1. Be we
2. Be thou or do thou be,	2. Be you or do you be,
3. Be he;	3. Be they.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To be. *Perfect Tense.* To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being. *Perfect.* Been. *Compound Perfect.* Having been.

EXERCISE.

Parse all the words:—If I were you, I would be a better girl.—Try [agrees with its subject *you* understood] to do your duty.—Blessed be the peace-makers.—Love all men, hate none.—To steal is base.—To tell the truth, if you were to fail, I should be glad.—Take care lest thou go astray.—What care I whether thou stay or go?

LESSON LI.

When two or more verbs in the same mood and tense are connected, must the auxiliary be used with each?

No; the auxiliary is generally used with the first only.

Give an example.

“Cities may rise, flourish, and decay.” The first verb alone has the auxiliary expressed. *Flourish* and *decay* have it understood, and are in the same mood and tense as *may rise*,—the potential present.

Is the auxiliary ever expressed alone, and the principal verb understood?

It is; as, "May I go? You *may*." Parse *may* as an auxiliary used for *may go*, in the potential mood, &c.

In parsing a participle, what rule must be given?

RULE XIII.—Participles are used independently, or relate to the substantives whose meaning they qualify or limit.

PARSING FORM.—*Smiling, she said, "There is always a satisfaction in having helped the poor."*

Smiling is the present participle of the intransitive verb *smile*, and relates to the pronoun *she*:—*Rule*, Participles are used independently, or relate to the substantives whose meaning they qualify or limit.

Having helped is the compound perfect participle active of the transitive verb *help*, used independently as the object of the preposition *in*:—*Rule*, Participles are used independently, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs:—Having rapidly marched through his province and reached the Rubicon, Cæsar paused.—By doing good to others, we do good to ourselves.—Climbing to the top of Mount Vesuvius is something of an achievement.—Printing, weaving, knitting, grinding, sawing, steam is our most faithful servant.—Can I help disobeying rules? Certainly you can.

LESSON LII.

CONJUGATION OF THE ACTIVE VOICE.

The verb **RULE**, which will serve as a model of all verbs, is conjugated as follows in the active voice:—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I rule *or* do rule,
2. Thou rulest *or* dost rule,
3. He rules *or* does rule ;

Plural.

1. We rule *or* do rule,
2. You rule *or* do rule,
3. They rule *or* do rule.

Imperfect Tense.

1. I ruled *or* did rule,
2. Thou ruledst *or* didst rule,
3. He ruled *or* did rule ;

1. We ruled *or* did rule,
2. You ruled *or* did rule,
3. They ruled *or* did rule.

Perfect Tense.

1. I have ruled,
2. Thou hast ruled,
3. He has ruled ;

1. We have ruled,
2. You have ruled,
3. They have ruled.

Pluperfect Tense.

1. I had ruled,
2. Thou hadst ruled,
3. He had ruled ;

1. We had ruled,
2. You had ruled,
3. They had ruled.

First Future Tense.

1. I shall *or* will rule,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt rule,
3. He shall *or* will rule ;

1. We shall *or* will rule,
2. You shall *or* will rule,
3. They shall *or* will rule.

Second Future Tense.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. I shall <i>or</i> will have ruled, | 1. We shall <i>or</i> will have ruled, |
| 2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt have ruled, | 2. You shall <i>or</i> will have ruled, |
| 3. He shall <i>or</i> will have ruled ; | 3. They shall <i>or</i> will have ruled. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. I may, can, must <i>or</i> need
rule, | 1. We may, can, must, <i>or</i> need
rule, |
| 2. Thou mayst, canst,* &c., rule, | 2. You may, can, &c., rule, |
| 3. He may, can, &c., rule ; | 3. They may, can, &c., rule. |

* In reciting, always give all the auxiliaries—*Thou mayst, canst, must, or needst rule.*

*Imperfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, or
should rule, | 1. We might, could, would, or
should rule, |
| 2. Thou mightst, &c., rule, | 2. You might, &c., rule, |
| 3. He might, &c., rule ; | 3. They might, &c., rule. |

Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. I may, can, must, or need
have ruled, | 1. We may, can, must, or need
have ruled, |
| 2. Thou mayst, &c., have ruled, | 2. You may, &c., have ruled, |
| 3. He may, &c., have ruled ; | 3. They may, &c., have ruled. |

Pluperfect Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. I might, &c., have ruled, | 1. We might, &c., have ruled, |
| 2. Thou mightst, &c., have ruled, | 2. You might, &c., have ruled, |
| 3. He might, &c., have ruled ; | 3. They might, &c., have ruled. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. If I rule or do rule, | 1. If we rule or do rule, |
| 2. If thou rule or do rule, | 2. If you rule or do rule, |
| 3. If he rule or do rule ; | 3. If they rule or do rule. |

Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. If I ruled or did rule, | 1. If we ruled or did rule, |
| 2. If thou ruled or did rule, | 2. If you ruled or did rule, |
| 3. If he ruled or did rule ; | 3. If they ruled or did rule. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Rule I, | 1. Rule we, |
| 2. Rule thou or do thou rule, | 2. Rule you or do you rule, |
| 3. Rule he ; | 3. Rule they. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To rule.*Perfect Tense.* To have ruled.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Ruling. *Perfect.* Ruled. *Comp. Perfect.* Having ruled.

EXERCISE.

Give the following parts of the verb WALK :—Indic. perf. 3d sing. Subj. pres. 2d sing. Inf. perf. Impera. 2d sing. Pot. imperf. 3d plu. Indic. 2d fu. 1st plu. Subj. imperf. 1st sing. Pres. part. Pot. pres. 2d sing. Indic. imperf. 2d plu. Indic. 1st fu. 1st plu. Pot. pluperf. 3d plu. Comp. perf. part.

LESSON LIII.

When do we use the forms of the present and imperfect indicative containing *do* and *did*?

When a negation is expressed or emphasis is required; as, “You *do* not love me. I *do* love you.”

What other form is sometimes used in the third singular of the present indicative active?

A solemn form ending in *th*,—*he ruleth*.

What person and number of the verb do we commonly use in addressing a single person?

The second person plural,—*you rule*, not *thou rulest*. But in prayer and poetry we say *thou rulest*.

What other form do we sometimes find in the imperfect indicative?

In the second singular of the imperfect indicative, *st* is sometimes omitted; as, thou *ruled* for thou *ruledst*.

Recite Rule XIV., relating to a substantive modifying a participle.

RULE XIV.—A substantive which, in stead of being modified by a participle, is made to modify the latter, is put in the possessive case.

Give an example.

“I saw John writing.” Here the noun *John* is

modified by the participle *writing*, and is in the objective case, the object of the verb *saw*.

“I was surprised at John’s writing so well.” Here *John’s* is made to modify the participle *writing*, and is put in the possessive case.

Parse *John’s* in the last example as follows :—

John’s is a proper noun, in the third person, singular number, masculine gender, possessive case, and modifies the participle *writing* :—*Rule*, A substantive which, in stead of modifying a participle, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs :—Charles First would not have lost his life, if he had been more prudent.—God saveth whom He will.—To do good and to distribute forget not.—We often shut our eyes, that we may not see our faults.—Much depends on your studying diligently.—Have you read of Hannibal’s crossing the Alps?

LESSON LIV.

CONJUGATION OF THE PASSIVE VOICE.

How are the tenses of the passive voice formed ?

By combining the perfect participle with the corresponding tenses of the auxiliary *be*.

The transitive verb *RULE* is conjugated as follows in the passive voice :—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I am ruled,
2. Thou art ruled,
3. He is ruled ;

Plural.

1. We are ruled,
2. You are ruled,
3. They are ruled.

*Imperfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. I was ruled,
2. Thou wast *or* wert ruled,
3. He was ruled ;

Plural.

1. We were ruled,
2. You were ruled,
3. They were ruled.

Perfect Tense.

1. I have been ruled,
2. Thou hast been ruled,
3. He has been ruled ;

1. We have been ruled,
2. You have been ruled,
3. They have been ruled.

Pluperfect Tense.

1. I had been ruled,
2. Thou hadst been ruled,
3. He had been ruled ;

1. We had been ruled,
2. You had been ruled,
3. They had been ruled.

First Future Tense.

1. I shall *or* will be ruled,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be ruled,
3. He shall *or* will be ruled ;

1. We shall *or* will be ruled,
2. You shall *or* will be ruled,
3. They shall *or* will be ruled.

Second Future Tense.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall <i>or</i> will have been ruled, | 1. We shall <i>or</i> will have been ruled, |
| 2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt have been ruled, | 2. You shall <i>or</i> will have been ruled, |
| 3. He shall <i>or</i> will have been ruled ; | 3. They shall <i>or</i> will have been ruled. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. I may, can, must, <i>or</i> need be ruled, | 1. We may, can, must, <i>or</i> need be ruled, |
| 2. Thou mayst, &c., be ruled, | 2. You may, &c., be ruled, |
| 3. He may, &c., be ruled ; | 3. They may, &c., be ruled. |

*Imperfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i>
should be ruled, | 1. We might, could, would, <i>or</i>
should be ruled, |
| 2. Thou mightst, &c., be ruled, | 2. You might, &c., be ruled, |
| 3. He might, &c., be ruled; | 3. They might, &c., be ruled. |

Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. I may, can, must, <i>or</i> need
have been ruled, | 1. We may, can, must, <i>or</i> need
have been ruled, |
| 2. Thou mayst, canst, must <i>or</i>
needst have been ruled, | 2. You may, can, must, <i>or</i> need
have been ruled, |
| 3. He may, can, must, <i>or</i> need
have been ruled; | 3. They may, can, must, <i>or</i> need
have been ruled. |

Pluperfect Tense.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i>
should have been ruled, | 1. We might, could, would, <i>or</i>
should have been ruled, |
| 2. Thou mightst, &c., have been
ruled, | 2. You might, &c., have been
ruled, |
| 3. He might, &c., have been
ruled; | 3. They might, &c., have been
ruled. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. If I be ruled, | 1. If we be ruled, |
| 2. If thou be ruled, | 2. If you be ruled, |
| 3. If he be ruled; | 3. If they be ruled, |

Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. If I were ruled, | 1. If we were ruled, |
| 2. If thou were ruled, | 2. If you were ruled, |
| 3. If he were ruled; | 3. If they were ruled. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Be I ruled, | 1. Be we ruled, |
| 2. Be thou <i>or</i> do thou be ruled, | 2. Be you <i>or</i> do you be ruled, |
| 3. Be he ruled; | 3. Be they ruled. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense. To be ruled. *Perfect Tense.* To have been ruled.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being ruled. *Perfect.* Ruled.

Comp. Perfect. Having been ruled.

EXERCISE.

*Give the following parts of the passive voice of the verb HELP:—*Perf. part. Indic. pluperf. 2d sing. Inf. pres. Pot. perf. 1st plu. Subj. imperf. 2d sing. Indic. pres. 3d plu. Subj. pres. 3d sing. Pot. pres. 1st sing. Indic. 2d fu. 2d plu. Impera. 2d plu. Comp. perf. part.

LESSON LV.

What distinct form do some verbs have?

A form implying continuance, called the *Progressive Form*.

How is the *Progressive Form* made?

By combining the participle in *ing* with the various parts of the auxiliary *be*; as, *I am ruling, I was ruling, &c.*

What verbs have no *Progressive Form*?

Verbs whose simple form denotes continuance; as, *love, remember.*

Recite the *Progressive Form* of the verb *RULE*, giving all the persons in both numbers.

PROGRESSIVE FORM.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT.—*I am ruling, thou art ruling, he is ruling, &c.*

IMPERFECT.—*I was ruling, thou wast or wert ruling, &c.*

PERFECT.—*I have been ruling, thou hast been ruling, &c.*

PLUPERFECT.—I had been ruling, thou hadst been ruling, &c.

FIRST FUTURE.—I shall *or* will be ruling, thou shalt *or* wilt, &c.

SECOND FUTURE.—I shall *or* will have been ruling, &c.

Potential Mood.

PRESENT.—I may, can, must, *or* need be ruling.

IMPERFECT.—I might, could, would, *or* should be ruling.

PERFECT.—I may, can, must, *or* need have been ruling.

PLUPERFECT.—I might, could, would, *or* should have been ruling.

Subjunctive Mood.

PRESENT.—If I be ruling, if thou be ruling, &c.

IMPERFECT.—If I were ruling, if thou were ruling, &c.

Imperative Mood.

PRESENT.—Be thou ruling *or* do thou be ruling, &c.

Infinitive Mood.

PRESENT.—To be ruling.

PERFECT.—To have been ruling.

Participles.

PRESENT.—Ruling.

COMP. PERFECT.—Having been ruling.

EXERCISE.

Change each verb to the corresponding part of the passive voice and the progressive form. [Thus :—We have received. *Passive*, We have been received. *Progressive Form*, We have been receiving.] He had hurried.—They will eat.—She may deceive.—To have injured.—I consider.—Thou carriest.—They may have visited.—You have pursued.—They might have read.—Having explored.

LESSON LVI.

What do we mean by the Root of a verb?

The present infinitive without the sign *to* ; as, *rule*.

What are the three Chief Parts of the verb?

The root, the imperfect indicative, and the perfect participle; *rule, ruled, ruled.*

How are the imperfect indicative and the perfect participle generally formed?

By adding *ed* to the root; as, walk, walked, walked.

What are verbs called, that form these parts thus?

Regular Verbs. *Walk* is regular.

What are verbs called, that have two forms in either of these parts, or do not make them by adding *ed* to the root?

Irregular Verbs; as, *arise, arose, arisen.*

Is *miss, missed, missed*, regular or irregular? *Blow, blew, blown?* *Come, came, come?* *Help, helped, helped?*

What changes must sometimes be made in the root of a regular verb, before adding *ed*?

1. Final *e* is rejected; as, *rule, rul-ed.*

2. Final *y* preceded by a consonant is changed to *i*; as, cry, cried.

3. The final consonant of a monosyllable, or of any verb accented on the last syllable, is doubled: as, pin, pinned; omit, omitted.

Observe that final *y* preceded by a vowel is not changed to *i*; as, *play, played.*

A verb not accented on the last syllable does not double its final consonant; as, *hinder, hindered.*

In parsing, when do we mention the three chief parts?

In parsing, we state whether the verb is regular or irregular; and, if it is irregular, we mention its three chief parts.

PARSING FORM.—*He arose and received us.*

Arose is an irregular intransitive verb; from *arise, arose, arisen*; in the indicative mood, (go on as before).

Received is a regular transitive verb, in the active voice, indicative mood, imperfect tense, &c.

EXERCISE.

*Spell the three chief parts of the following verbs:—*Love; whet; grieve; plant; separate; tarry; stray; cloy; man; moan; remit; compel; profit; tender; offer; annul; commit; abhor; detest; carry; bray; weigh; hoe; refer; dot; doat; grab.

LESSON LVII.

TABLE OF SIMPLE IRREGULAR VERBS.

The chief parts of the principal simple irregular verbs are presented in the following Table.

Simple verbs will serve as models for those formed from them; hence the latter are not given separately. Thus *overtake* goes like *take*: *overtake, overtook, overtaken*.

Some verbs, besides their irregular form, have a regular one in *ed*. This is denoted in the Table by the letter R. Recite both forms in the order given in the table:—*Build, built* or *builded, built* or *builded*.

A form in italics, or a regular form represented by an italic *R*, is not now in good use, though once authorized. When there are two forms, the preferable one is placed first.

Each page of verbs with the Exercise at the bottom may constitute a lesson. Remember that the imperfect indicative must not be used for the perfect participle, nor the perfect participle for the imperfect indicative. After the errors in the Exercise are corrected, the nouns, pronouns, articles, adjectives, and verbs (see form on p. 76), may be parsed.

<i>Root.</i>	<i>Imperf.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Root.</i>	<i>Imperf.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abode.	Build,	built, <i>R.</i> ,	built, <i>R.</i>
Arise,	arose,	arisen.	Burn,	<i>R.</i> , burnt,	<i>R.</i> , burnt.
Awake,	awoke, <i>R.</i> ,	awoke, <i>R.</i>	Burst,	burst,	burst.
Be,	was,	been.	Buy,	bought,	bought.
Bear	{ bore, }	borne.	Cast,	cast,	cast.
(carry),	{ bare, }		Catch,	caught, <i>R.</i> ,	caught, <i>R.</i>
Bear	{ bore, }	born.	Chide,	{ chid, }	chidden,
(bring forth),	{ bare, }			{ chode, }	chid.
Beat,	beat,	{ beaten, }	Choose,	chose,	chosen.
		{ beat. }	Cleave	{ <i>R.</i> , clove, }	cleaved.
Begin,	{ began, }	begun.	(adhere),	{ clave, }	
	{ begun, }		Cleave	{ cleft, }	cleft,
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.	(split),	{ clove, }	cloven, <i>R.</i>
Bend,	bent, <i>R.</i> ,	bent, <i>R.</i>	Cling,	clung,	clung.
Beseech,	besought,	besought.	Clothe,	<i>R.</i> , clad,	<i>R.</i> , clad.
Bet,	bet, <i>R.</i> ,	bet, <i>R.</i>	Come,	came,	come.
Bid,	bade, bid,	bidden, bid.	Cost,	cost,	cost.
Bind,	bound,	bound.	Creep,	crept,	crept.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.	Crow,	crew, <i>R.</i> ,	crowed.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.	Cut,	cut,	cut.
Blend,	<i>R.</i> , blent,	<i>R.</i> , blent.	Dare	{ durst, }	dared.
Blow,	blew,	blown.	(venture),		
Break,	{ broke, }	broken.	Deal,	dealt, <i>R.</i> ,	dealt, <i>R.</i>
	{ brake, }		Dig,	dug, <i>R.</i> ,	dug, <i>R.</i>
Breed,	bred,	bred.	Dive,	<i>R.</i> , dove,	dived.
Bring,	brought,	brought.	Do,	did,	done.

EXERCISE.

*Correct the errors in the verbs:—*We have *born* many hardships.—When were you *borne*?—The exercises had *began*.—The rain having *began*, he *betted* it would last all day.—Has your father *forbade* you to swim?—The wind has *blowed* so hard that it has *broke* some branches off your elm.—She *burst*ed out laughing.—They *might* have *came* yesterday, if they had *chose*.—She *outdone* us all.

<i>Root.</i>	<i>Imperf.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Root.</i>	<i>Imperf.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Draw,	drew,	drawn.	Grow,	grew,	grown.
Dream,	R., drēamt,	R., drēamt.	Hang,	hung, R.,	hung, R.
Drink,	drank,	{ drunk, drank.	Have,	had,	had.
Drive,	drove,	driven.	Hear,	heard,	heard.
Dwell,	dwelt, R.,	dwelt, R.	Hew,	hewed,	hewn, R.
Eat,	ate, ěat,	eaten, ěat.	Hide,	hid,	{ hidden, hid.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.	Hit,	hit,	hit.
Feed,	fed,	fed.	Hold,	held,	held.
Feel,	felt,	felt.	Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Fight,	fought,	fought.	Keep,	kept,	kept.
Find,	found,	found.	Kneel,	knelt, R.,	knelt, R.
Flee,	fled,	fled.	Knit,	knit, R.,	knit, R.
Fling,	flung,	flung.	Know,	knew,	known.
Fly,	flew,	flown.	Lay,	laid,	laid.
Forbear,	forbore,	forborne.	Lead,	led,	led.
Forget,	forgot,	{ forgotten, forgot.	Lean,	R., lěant,	R., lěant.
Forgive,	forgave,	forgiven.	Leave,	left,	left.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.	Lend,	lent,	lent.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.	Let,	let,	let.
Get,	got, gat,	got, gotten.	Lie (recline),	lay,	lain.
Gird,	girt, R.,	girt, R.	Light,	R., lit,	R., lit.
Give,	gave,	given.	Lose,	lost,	lost.
Go,	went,	gone.	Make,	made,	made.
Grind,	ground,	ground.	Mean,	měant, R.,	měant, R.
			Meet,	met,	met.

EXERCISE.

Correct :—He *done* it.—She has *overcame* every obstacle.—They should have *drawed* lots.—You drunk too much, I fear.—That horse has been *overdrove*.—They have *ate* up their oats.—Have they *fell* out?—How those dogs have *fit*!—I have *forborn* complaining.—Has he *forgave* you?—You should not have *forsook* your friends.—They need not have *went* so soon.—Your garden is *overgrewed* with weeds.

<i>Root.</i>	<i>Imperf.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>	<i>Root.</i>	<i>Imperf.</i>	<i>Perf. Part.</i>
Mow,	mowed.	mown, R.	Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Pay,	paid,	paid.	Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Plead,	R., pled,	R., pled.	Show,	showed,	shown, R.
Put,	put,	put.	Shrink,	{ shrunk,	shrunk,
Quit,	quit, R.,	quit, R.		{ <i>shrank</i> ,	<i>shrunk</i> .
Read,	rēad,	rēad.	Shut,	shut,	shut.
Rend,	rent,	rent.	Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
Rid,	rid,	rid.	Sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
Ride,	rode,	ridden, rode.	Sit,	sat,	sat, <i>sitten</i> .
Ring,	rung, rang,	rung.	Slay,	slew,	slain.
Rise,	rose,	risen.	Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Roast,	roasted,	R., roast.	Slide,	slid,	{ slidden,
Run,	ran, run,	run.			{ slid.
Saw,	sawed,	R., sawn.	Sling,	{ slung,	slung.
Say,	said,	said.		{ <i>slang</i> ,	
See,	saw,	seen.	Slink,	{ slunk,	slunk.
Seek,	sought,	sought.		{ <i>slank</i> ,	
Sell,	sold,	sold.	Slit,	slit, R.,	slit, R.
Send,	sent,	sent.	Smite,	smote,	{ smitten,
Set,	set,	set.			{ smit.
Shake,	shook, R.,	shaken.	Sow,	sowed,	R., sown.
Shape,	shaped,	R., shapen.	Speak,	{ spoke,	spoken.
Shave,	shaved,	R., shaven.		{ <i>spake</i> ,	
Shear,	sheared,	shorn, R.	Speed,	sped, R.,	sped, R.
Shed,	shed,	shed.	Spend,	spent,	spent.
Shine,	shone, R.,	shone, R.	Spill,	R., spilt,	R., spilt.

EXERCISE.

Correct.—Has she *forgave* you?—He must have *froze* his feet.—He has *outgrewed* the disease.—Have you heard how Robert hurted himself?—I knowed you had laid down.—You must have rid fast.—I seen him yesterday.—She has ran herself out of breath.—They sat a trap by the river.—Have you shook the carpet?—Your coat has shrunk.—Having sang, he took his leave.—I have not spoke a word.

Root.	Imperf.	Perf. Part.	Root.	Imperf.	Perf. Part.
Spin,	spun, <i>span</i> ,	spun.	Swim,	{ swum, } { swam, }	swum.
Spit,	{ spit, } { spat, }	spit, <i>spitten</i> .	Swing,	{ swung, } { swang, }	swung.
Split,	split, <i>R.</i> ,	split, <i>R.</i>	Take,	took,	taken.
Spread,	spread,	spread.	Teach,	taught,	taught.
Spring,	{ sprung, } { sprang, }	sprung.	Tear,	tore,	torn.
Stand,	stood,	stood.	Tell,	told,	told.
Stay,	<i>R.</i> , staid,	<i>R.</i> , staid.	Think,	thought,	thought.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.	Thrive,	throve, <i>R.</i> ,	thriven, <i>R.</i>
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.	Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Sting,	stung,	stung.	Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Stink,	{ stunk, } { stank, }	stunk.	Tread,	trod,	{ trodden, } { trod. }
Stride,	{ strode, } { strid, }	stridden, strid.	Wake,	<i>R.</i> , woke,	<i>R.</i> , woke.
Strike,	struck,	{ struck, } { stricken. }	Wear,	wore,	worn.
String,	strung,	strung.	Weave,	wove, <i>R.</i> ,	woven, <i>R.</i>
Strive,	strove,	striven, <i>R.</i>	Wed,	<i>R.</i> , wed,	<i>R.</i> , wed.
Strow,	strowed,	strown, <i>R.</i>	Weep,	wept,	wept.
Swear,	{ swore, } { sware, }	sworn.	Wet,	wet, <i>R.</i> ,	wet, <i>R.</i>
Sweat,	sweat, <i>R.</i> ,	sweat, <i>R.</i>	Win,	won,	won.
Sweep,	swept,	swept.	Wind	{ wound, } (twine),	wound.
Swell,	swelled,	<i>R.</i> , swollen.	Work,	<i>R.</i> , wrought,	<i>R.</i> , wrought.
			Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
			Write,	wrote,	written.

EXERCISE.

Correct.—Having *came* in late, they *set* by the door.—Cities have *sprang* up, as if by magic.—He must have *stole* it.—Where have they *swam* to?—Who *tached* you?—You have *tore* your book.—He *throwed* me down.—Your shoes have *wore* well.—They *winned* the match.—Have you *writ* your exercise?—Had you *wrote* to your mother?—They *rended* their garments.—I *foreseen* he would fail.

LESSON LVIII.

What is a Defective Verb?

A **Defective Verb** is one that wants some of its parts. The principal defective verbs are *ought*, *beware*, *methinks*, and *meseems*.

In what tenses does *ought* appear?

Ought appears only in the present and imperfect indicative and subjunctive. It is conjugated thus:—

Pres. and Imperf. Ind.

Pres. and Imperf. Subj.

- | | | | |
|-------------------|-------------|-------------------|----------------|
| 1. I ought, | We ought, | 1. If I ought, | If we ought, |
| 2. Thou oughtest, | You ought, | 2. If thou ought, | If you ought, |
| 3. He ought; | They ought. | 3. If he ought; | If they ought. |

In what tenses does *beware* appear?

Beware, compounded of *be* and *ware*, is used only in those tenses which in the verb *be* retain *be*:—

IND. FIRST FU.—I shall or will *beware*; thou shalt or wilt, &c.

POTENTIAL PRES.—I may, can, must, or need *beware*.

POTENTIAL IMPERF.—I might, could, would, or should *beware*.

SUBJUNCTIVE PRES.—If I *beware*; if thou *beware*, &c.

IMPERATIVE PRES., 2d person.—*Beware* thou; *beware* you.

INFINITIVE PRES.—To *beware*.

In what part are *methinks* and *meseems*?

Methinks and **meseems**, meaning *it seems to me*, are in the indicative, present, third, singular.

In what other part are they also used?

In the third singular of the imperfect indicative,—*methought* and *meseemed*.

What are *methinks* and *meseems* called?

Unipersonal Verbs, because they are used in but one person. They never admit of a subject, and hence in parsing no rule can be given for their agreement.

PARSING FORMS.—*Methinks you ought to beware of such false friends.*

Methinks is a unipersonal intransitive verb, in the indicative mood, present tense, 3d person, singular number; has no subject.

Ought is a defective intransitive verb, in the indicative mood, present tense, second person, plural number, and agrees with its subject *you*:—*Rule*, A verb agrees with its subject, &c.

To beware is a defective intransitive verb, in the infinitive mood, present tense, and limits the meaning of the verb *ought*:—*Rule*, A verb in the infinitive is used as a subject, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, articles, adjectives, and verbs:
—We ought to beware of faults into which we have once been betrayed.—Ought you not to forgive your enemies?—Methinks I hear Demosthenes thundering in the market-place.—If thou beware of flatterers, thou wilt do well.—Methought I had passed the gates of death.—Meseems a demon watcheth thee.

LESSON LIX.

A REVIEW.

What is a verb? What is the greatest number of words that may form a verb? What are *may*, *must*, and other little words that aid in forming the tenses, called? What is the difference between a transitive and an intransitive verb? Which of these has voice? When is a verb called finite? What is mood? What is tense?

Which mood has the most tenses? Which, the next most? Which moods are used in asking questions? What have you found with respect to the subject of a verb in the imperative? On what do the person and number of a verb depend? What is a participle? How many participles are there? In what case must a substantive be put, that modifies a participle?

When are the forms containing *do* and *did* used? What is the solemn form for the third singular of the present indicative active? How are the tenses of the passive voice formed? How are the tenses of the progressive form made? What does the progressive form imply? What is the difference between a regular and an irregular verb? What is a defective verb?

EXERCISE.

Give the three chief parts of the following irregular verbs, remembering that they go like the simple verbs from which they are formed:—Unstring; mistake; overcome; forbid; overthrow; forego; overhear; undersell; misgive; rebuild; underlet; remake; overpay; uprise; foresee; unweave; outwork; rewrite; understand; acquit (*regular*); demean (*reg.*); unclothe (*reg.*); implead (*reg.*).

LESSON LX.

What is the sixth part of speech?

The Adverb.

When I say, "He soon became very angry," by what is the verb *became* modified?

By *soon*, which tells *when* he became angry.

By what is the adjective *angry* modified?

By *very*, which tells *how* angry he became.

What are *soon*, *very*, and other words so used, called?

Adverbs.

What else may an adverb modify?

Another adverb; as, "He spoke *very* angrily."

What is an Adverb?

An **Adverb** is a word expressing manner, time, place, degree, &c., and generally used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Give examples of adverbs, arranged according to their meaning. The following are examples of adverbs:—

1. ADVERBS OF MANNER.—*How?* *Thus, so, well, ill, somehow, otherwise, slowly, and most words ending in ly.*
2. TIME.—*When?* *Then, now, already, formerly, to-day, yesterday, to-morrow, soon, early, daily, seldom, often, ever, always.*
3. PLACE.—*Where?* *Here, there, wherever, whither, hither, thither, whence, hence, thence, away, off, far, up, down.*
4. DEGREE.—*Much, little, very, exceedingly, greatly, quite, enough, equally, scarcely, nearly, almost.*
5. AFFIRMATION.—*Yes, ay, certainly, truly, indeed, doubtless, undoubtedly, amen.*
6. NEGATION.—*No, nay, not, nowise, nohow, never.*
7. POSSIBILITY.—*Perhaps, perchance, maybe, haply.*
8. NUMBER.—*First* (which is preferable to *firstly*), *secondly, thirdly, &c.; once, twice, thrice.*

Which class of adverbs is the largest?

Adverbs of manner. Many of these are formed from adjectives by adding *ly*; as, *rudely* from *rude*.

EXERCISE.

Insert adverbs of manner: Do your work —. Jane walks —. When the sun shines —, the birds sing —. How — the wind roars in March! Speak — to all men; do not talk —. How — Maria sings!

Insert adverbs of time, place, or degree: Smart boys get up —. Henry's dog has run —; — shall he look for it? We can — travel — more rapidly than we — could. They were — tired. We can — find enough to do.

LESSON LXI.

Does the same word ever appear in one sentence as an adverb, and in another as some other part of speech?

It does, as in the following examples:—

He will start *to-morrow* (adv.). *To-morrow* (noun) may never come.—*Only* (adv.) believe. An *only* (adjective) son.—*Crack* (adv.) went the mast. The mast will *crack* (verb).—’Twas *passing* (adv.) strange. *Passing* (participle) the door.—*But* (adv.) five were there. *But* (conjunction) what did you say?

From what must adverbs be carefully distinguished?

Adverbs must be carefully distinguished from adjectives. They sometimes have the same form. In this case, if the word modifies a substantive, it is an adjective; but, if it modifies a verb, adjective, or adverb, it is an adverb. Thus:—

Adjectives.—An *upward* flight; *cleanly* habits; the *above* rules; the *first* fruits; Sarah is *well*; the *very* man; a *daily* paper.

Adverbs.—To fly *upward*; to live *cleanly*; look *above*; he spoke *first*; Sarah reads *well*; *very* gayly; he goes *daily*.

When there are distinct forms for adverb and adjective, what caution must be observed?

Not to interchange them. The adjective must be used with a substantive, and the adverb with a verb or adjective. Thus:—

A soon answer; the now governor. Wrong, because the adverbs *soon* and *now* are joined to nouns. Correct by substituting adjectives:—a *speedy* answer; the *present* governor.

Lead is melted easier than iron. This tea is uncommon good. Wrong, because the adjective *easier* is joined to the verb *is melted*, and the adjective *uncommon* to the adjective *good*. Correct by substituting adverbs:—Lead is melted *more easily* than iron. This tea is *uncommonly* good.

What is a Conjunctive Adverb?

A **Conjunctive Adverb** is one that connects parts of a sentence; as, “Remain there *till* I come.”

Mention some of the most common conjunctive adverbs.

Why, how, when, where, after, before, till.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, adjectives, and verbs; select the adverbs:
 —How pure is the air at early dawn!—Start early, or your work will get ahead of you.—Have you no mercy? No, none for idlers.—Sleep on now, and take your rest.—Now is the time to repent.—The miser never has enough.—You have not studied enough.

Correct, and give the reasons:—I hope for a soon return.—Think of your hereafter life.—Your often lateness puts you back.—Never behave rude.—How graceful she walks!—John speaks more correct than most persons.—The then mayor was present.

LESSON LXII.

What part of speech have we learned to compare? How many degrees of comparison are there? What is the positive degree? The comparative? The superlative?

What besides adjectives are compared?

A few adverbs of one and two syllables are compared, like adjectives, by adding *er* for the comparative, and *est* for the superlative. Thus:—

<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Sup.</i>	<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Sup.</i>
Late,	later,	latest.	Early,	earlier,	earliest.
Fast,	faster,	fastest.	Often,	oftener,	oftenest.

Mention some adverbs that are compared irregularly.

The following are compared irregularly:—

<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Sup.</i>	<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Sup.</i>
Badly, ill,	worse,	worst,	Much,	more,	most.
Well,	better,	best.	Far,	farther,	farthest.
Little,	less,	least.	Forth,	further,	furthest.

How are *more* and *most* often used?

More and *most* are often used before adjectives

and adverbs, to give them the force of the comparative and superlative degree ; as, *more* graceful, *most* gracefully.

How can we find what an adverb modifies ?

By asking a question with *what*. “Is that sum hard ? Yes ; *very*.” *Very what ?* Answer, very *hard*. *Very* modifies the adjective *hard* understood.

We see, then, that the word modified by an adverb may be understood.

Is an adverb ever used without modifying any particular word ?

Yes, and it is then said to be used independently.

Give examples of adverbs used independently.

Yes and *no* in answers ; *amen* at the end of prayers ; *forth* in the expression *and so forth* ; *first*, *secondly*, *thirdly*, &c., introducing particulars.

Recite Rule XV., for the adverb.

RULE XV.—An adverb relates to the word or words whose meaning it modifies, or stands independently in the sentence.

How must we parse an adverb ?

To parse an adverb, compare it and state its degree, if it can be compared ; tell what it relates to or state that it is used independently ; if a conjunctive adverb, tell what it connects and what it relates to ; finally, give Rule XV.

PARSING FORM.—*Yes, I shall go farther, till I find the spot.*

Yes is an adverb, used independently :—*Rule*, An adverb relates to the word or words whose meaning it modifies, or stands independently in the sentence.

Farther is an adverb ; *far*, *farther*, *farthest* ; in the comparative degree, and relates to the verb *shall go* :—*Rule*, An adverb, &c.

Till is a conjunctive adverb; it connects *I shall go farther* and *I find the spot*, and relates to the verb *shall go*:—*Rule*, An adverb, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse the nouns, pronouns, articles, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs:—Judge not too hastily.—Compose carefully, if you would compose correctly.—He who rises late certainly loses the best part of the day.—The more we study, the better we like to study.—He then asked me when and where this took place.—We have far greater facilities for education now than formerly; but perhaps we value them less.

LESSON LXIII.

Name the parts of speech. Which is the seventh?

The Preposition.

When I say “Washington marched to Princeton,” what word shows the relation between the marching and Princeton?

To; not *from* Princeton, nor *round* Princeton, nor *past* Princeton, but *to* Princeton. The words in italics express different relations, and are called Prepositions.

What may a preposition have for its object?

1. A noun; as, about the *room*.
2. A pronoun; as, about *us*.
3. An infinitive; as, about *to commence*.
4. A participle; as, about *commencing*.

What is a Preposition?

A **Preposition** is a word used to show the relation that a substantive, infinitive, or participle bears to some other term in the sentence.

What is an Adjunct?

An **Adjunct** is an expression consisting of a prepo-

sition, its object, and the words that modify the latter; as, "*Cræsus was noted for his boundless wealth.*"

Mention some of the principal prepositions.

The prepositions in common use are,

a,	at,	despite,	on,	touching,
aboard,	before,	down,	over,	toward,
about,	behind,	during,	past,	towards,
above,	below,	ere,	pending,	under,
across,	beneath,	except,	regarding,	underneath,
after,	beside,	excepting,	respecting,	until,
against,	besides,	for,	round,	unto,
along,	between,	from,	save,	up,
amid,	betwixt,	in,	since,	upon,
amidst,	beyond,	into,	through,	versus,
among,	but,	notwithstanding,	throughout,	with,
amongst,	by,	of,	till,	within,
around,	concerning,	off,	to,	without.

EXERCISE.

Supply prepositions: Alfred, the son — Ethelwolf, succeeded — the crown of England — the year 871. — his reign, England was invaded — the Danes. He had many battles — them, and at last, — having been defeated several times, succeeded — routing them — great slaughter. From this time — his death he labored — the improvement of his subjects, and he was, — a doubt, one — the best kings that ever reigned — England.

LESSON LXIV.

Are the words in the above list always prepositions?

No; they are prepositions only when they express some relation, and have an object.

When used without an object, what are many of these words?

Adverbs. "Look above this earth;" *above* is a preposition, having *earth* for its object. "Look above;" here there is no object, and *above* is an adverb.

How is a compound relation expressed?

By two prepositions, which are taken together in parsing and called a Complex Preposition; as, *from within* the house.

How does a preposition generally stand?

Before its object. The word *pre-position* means a placing before.

Does the preposition ever stand after its object?

Yes, the relatives *that* and *as* always precede the preposition that governs them; as, "The world *that* we live *in* is a world of trial."

How can we find the former term of the relation?

By asking a question with *what* before the preposition. Thus:—"In a multitude of counsellors there is wisdom." *What* in a multitude? Answer, *is* in a multitude; the preposition *in* shows the relation between the noun *multitude* and the verb *is*.

Is the former term of the relation ever understood?

It is, as in the following sentence: "[*Looking*] On the whole, I prefer Spring."

Recite Rule XVI., relating to prepositions.

RULE XVI.—A preposition shows the relation that a substantive, infinitive, or participle, bears to some other word or words in the sentence.

PARSING FORM.—*Over against Troy is the island I spoke of.*

Over against is a complex preposition, and shows the relation between the noun *Troy*, which is its object, and the verb *is*:—*Rule*, A preposition shows the relation that a substantive, &c.

Of is a preposition, and shows the relation between the relative pronoun *that* understood, which is its object, and the verb *spoke*:—*Rule*, A preposition shows the relation, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse each word:—The boa is the largest of serpents. Suspending itself by the tail from some tree beside a river, it lies in wait for its prey, darting with great rapidity on whatever living creature first comes within its reach. Winding its folds around its victim, it crushes him to death by the immense power of its muscles, despite his most violent efforts to escape.

LESSON LXV.

Name the parts of speech. Which is the eighth?

The Conjunction.

“But, if you go, he and I will remain.” What words are used as connectives in this sentence?

But is used to connect the sentence with what goes before. *If* connects parts of the sentence,—*you go* and *he and I will remain*. *And* connects the words *he* and *I*.

What are words thus used as connectives called?

Conjunctions.

What is a Conjunction?

A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect words, sentences, or parts of a sentence.

Mention some of the principal conjunctions.

The principal conjunctions are as follows:—

although,	either,	neither,	save,	then,
and,	even,	nevertheless,	seeing,	though,
as,	except,	nor,	since,	unless,
because,	for,	notwithstanding,	so,	yet,
both,	if,	or,	than,	whereas,
but,	lest,	provided,	that,	whether.

Are the words in the above list always conjunctions?

No ; several of them are also used as other parts of speech. They are conjunctions only when they connect. Observe the following examples :—

Both (conj.) Alexander and Cæsar were great conquerors, and *both* (adj. pro.) met with an untimely end.—They say *that* (conj.) *that* (pro. adj.) house *that* (rel. pro.) we just passed is haunted.—Help such *as* (rel. pro.) need help.—Some savage nations, *as* (conjunctive adv.) I have heard, worship the sun *as* (conj.) a god.

What is a Complex Conjunction ?

A Complex Conjunction is one that consists of two or more connectives, which must be taken together in parsing. *Inasmuch as, as well as, as if, as though, for all*, are complex conjunctions.

Recite Rule XVII., relating to conjunctions.

RULE XVII.—A conjunction connects words, sentences, or parts of a sentence.

PARSING FORM.—*Yet Jefferson, as well as Madison, was a Virginian.*

Yet is a conjunction, and connects the sentence with what goes before :—*Rule*, A conjunction connects words, sentences, or parts of a sentence.

As well as is a complex conjunction, and connects the two nouns *Jefferson* and *Madison* :—*Rule*, A conjunction connects, &c.

EXERCISE.

Parse each word :—We are told that Brutus doomed his own sons to death ; yet he loved them as only a father or a

mother can love.—To injure another because he has injured us, is both foolish and wicked.—Astronomers can not tell whether the other planets are inhabited or not; but it is commonly believed that they are.—Neither fame nor wealth can insure happiness to its possessor.

LESSON LXVI.

Name the parts of speech. Which is the ninth and last?

The Interjection.

What is an Interjection?

An **Interjection** is a word used independently of grammatical relations, to express some strong or sudden emotion of the mind.

Mention the principal interjections.

The following are the principal interjections, arranged according to the emotions they express:—

1. *Exultation.* Ah! aha! hey! heyday! hurrah! huzza!
2. *Sorrow.* Ah! oh! alas! alack! lackaday! welladay!
3. *Wonder.* Ha! indeed! strange! what! hoity-toity! zounds!
4. *Approval.* Bravo! well-done!
5. *Contempt, aversion.* Faugh! fie! fudge! pugh! pshaw! tut!
6. *Weariness.* Heigh-ho!
7. *Merriment.* Ha, ha, ha! (an imitation of the sound of laughter).
8. *Desire to drive away.* Aroynt! avaunt! begone! off! shoo!
9. *Desire to address or salute.* O, hail! all-hail! welcome!
10. *Desire for one's welfare on leaving.* Adieu! farewell! good-by!
11. *Desire for attention.* Ho! what ho! hallo! ahoy! lo! hark!
12. *Desire for silence.* Hist! whist! hush! mum!
13. *Desire to stop or interrupt another.* Avast! hold! soft!
14. *Desire for information.* Eh? hey?

By what point are interjections generally followed?

By the exclamation-point (!). *O*, which must

always be a capital, takes no point after it. *Eh* and *hey*, implying a question, are followed by the interrogation-point.

Do interjections bear grammatical relations to other words?

They do not. They neither govern nor are governed, neither agree with other words nor relate to them. Hence no rule is needed in parsing them.

A substantive following an interjection is generally in the nominative independent; as, "Alas! unhappy *we*!"

If a substantive in the possessive or objective case follows, it is not governed by the interjection, but by some word understood; as, "Oh *my* [that is, Oh *my* hard *lot*]!" "Oh dear *me* [*pity* dear *me*]!"

PARSING FORM.—*Fie! are you still abed?*

Fie is an interjection, implying contempt.

EXERCISE.

Parse each word:—Farewell, vain hopes!—Hist! I hear a noise.—Bravo! such an effort deserved success.—What! art thou really here? Well-done!—Off! begone! a slanderer is beneath contempt.—O grave, where is thy sting?—Ah! that deceit should steal such gentle shapes!—Alas! the heavy day!—Hallo! who goes there?

LESSON LXVII.

The seventeen Rules of Syntax that have been given under the different parts of speech, are now presented together for convenience of reference.

RULE I.—A substantive that is the subject of a verb is in the nominative case.

RULE II.—A substantive used independently is in the nominative case.

RULE III.—A substantive that modifies a noun denoting a different person or thing, by implying possession, origin, or fitness, is in the possessive case.

RULE IV.—A substantive that is the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

RULE V.—A modifying substantive, denoting time, direction, extent, quantity, or value, often stands in the objective case without a preposition.

RULE VI.—One substantive joined to another denoting the same person or thing, is in the same case.

RULE VII.—A verb that has no object takes the same case after as before it, when both words refer to the same person or thing.

RULE VIII.—A relative agrees with its antecedent in person and number.

RULE IX.—An article relates to the word whose meaning it limits.

RULE X.—An adjective relates to the substantive whose meaning it qualifies or limits.

RULE XI.—A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

RULE XII.—A verb in the infinitive is used as a subject, or limits the meaning of some other word, or stands independently in the sentence.

RULE XIII.—Participles are used independently, or relate to the substantives whose meaning they qualify or limit.

RULE XIV.—A substantive which, in stead of being modified by a participle, is made to modify the latter, is put in the possessive case.

RULE XV.—An adverb relates to the word or words whose meaning it modifies, or stands independently in the sentence.

RULE XVI.—A preposition shows the relation that a substantive, infinitive, or participle, bears to some other word or words in the sentence.

RULE XVII.—A conjunction connects words, sentences, or parts of a sentence.

EXERCISE.

Parse each word:—

“Hope humbly then ; with trembling pinions soar ;
 Wait the great teacher, Death ; and God adore.
 What future bliss, He gives not thee to know,
 But gives that hope to be thy blessing now.
 Hope springs eternal in the human breast ;
 Man never is, but always to be, blessed :
 The soul, uneasy and confined from home,
 Rests and expatiates on a life to come.”

LESSON LXVIII.

What is Ellipsis ?

Ellipsis is the omission of words essential to the construction, though not to the sense.

What is said of words omitted by ellipsis ?

They are said to be *understood*. They must be supplied in parsing, to explain the government, agreement, or relation of the words expressed.

EXERCISE.

*Parse each word. In the key sentences, the words understood are supplied within brackets:—*As [*it*] regards harbors, Denmark is well provided.—As far as concerns the dodo, it has become extinct within two centuries.—Goldsmith was more lavish of his money, when he had it, than was prudent.—Buy no more furniture than [*what*] is needed.

The poor [*persons*] are often happier than the rich.—It is base to be [*a*] dishonest [*person*].—Whose [*property*] is this apple? Arthur's.—Call at the doctor's [*office*].—Stop at Johnson's and buy [*for*] me some flour.—Give [*to*] me your hand.—You should offer the lady your seat.—When did he depart this life?

He saveth [*him*] whom He will [*save*].—Whom He loveth, He chasteneth.—It is labor enables us to enjoy rest.—[*Go*] On, my gallant boys!—Away to your places.—Some men prize honor more than [*they prize*] gold.—Air is 827 times (obj. case, according to Rule V.) lighter than water [*is*].—I am going; [*I wish you*] good evening.—Good-by! success to you!—Milton's poetry is more sublime than Virgil's.

LESSON LXIX.

What is a Sentence?

A **Sentence** is such an assemblage of words as makes complete sense.

As regards their meaning, how are sentences divided?

Into four classes; Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, and Exclamatory.

What is a Declarative Sentence?

A **Declarative Sentence** is one that declares something; as, "The wind blows."

What is an Interrogative Sentence?

An **Interrogative Sentence** is one that asks a question; as, "Does the wind blow?"

What is an Imperative Sentence?

An **Imperative Sentence** is one that expresses a command, an exhortation, an entreaty, or permission, and contains a verb in the imperative mood; as, "Let the wind blow."

What is an Exclamatory Sentence ?

An **Exclamatory Sentence** is one that exclaims something ; as, "How the wind blows !"

With what do imperative sentences often commence ?

With the verb *let*.

With what do exclamatory sentences often commence ?

With the pronominal adjective *what* or the adverb *how* ; as, "What a fearful spectacle !" "How bright the stars are !"

EXERCISE.

*Form five declarative, five interrogative, five imperative, and five exclamatory sentences, containing the following expressions in order :—*1. Fine fruit. 2. Facilities for travelling. 3. A good memory. 4. Very rapidly. 5. Brick houses.—6. Have you studied? 7. Who are disobliging. 8. Love of money. 9. Dark clouds. 10. Travelling so far.—11. Let us. 12. In peace. 13. A habit of grumbling. 14. Wet grass. 15. Stale bread.—16. How beautiful. 17. What a privilege. 18. To obey one's parents. 19. Pleasant dreams. 20. A waste of time.

LESSON LXX.

What is the Grammatical Subject of a sentence ?

The **Grammatical Subject** is the leading word, denoting that about which something is said.

By what is the grammatical subject sometimes modified ?

By words that limit or explain its meaning, or introduce some additional fact.

Of what does the Logical Subject of a sentence consist ?

The **Logical Subject** consists of the grammatical subject and its modifiers.

What is the Predicate of a sentence ?

The **Predicate** of a sentence is what remains after the logical subject is removed.

Give examples of these definitions.

“Seven metals were known to the ancients.”

Metals is the grammatical subject. *Seven* modifies it, and therefore *seven metals* is the logical subject. *Were known to the ancients* is the predicate.

How can some sentences be divided ?

Into two or more parts of equal rank, having each a subject and predicate of its own. Such parts are called **Members**.

What is the difference between Compound and Simple Sentences ?

Sentences that can be divided into two or more members, are called **Compound Sentences**. Those that cannot be so divided, are called **Simple Sentences**.

“All are of the dust.” This sentence expresses one thought, and can not be divided into two or more members. It is therefore *simple*. If we join to it another member, with or without a conjunction, we make the sentence *compound*. Thus:—“All are of the dust, and all turn to dust again.”

A verb is sometimes understood in the predicate of one or more of the members of a compound sentence ; as, “Honesty is the best policy, and temperance [*is*] the best physic.”

How do we distinguish compound sentences, when their members are all of the same class ?

When the members are all declarative, we call the sentence **Compound Declarative** ; when all interrogative, **Compound Interrogative** ; when all imperative, **Compound Imperative** ; when all exclamatory, **Compound Exclamatory**.

What do we call a sentence whose members are of different classes?

A Compound Sentence with Dissimilar Members.

“Cast thy bread upon the waters; for thou shalt find it after many days.” This is a compound sentence with dissimilar members. The first member is imperative; the second is declarative.

FORMS.—*How slow yon tiny vessel ploughs the main!*

A simple exclamatory sentence. The grammatical subject is *vessel*. The logical subject is *yon tiny vessel*. The predicate is *how slow ploughs the main*.

Be just and fear not.

A compound imperative sentence. The first member is *be just*; its grammatical and logical subject is *thou* understood; its predicate is *be just*. The second member is *and fear not*, connected with the first member by the conjunction *and*; its grammatical and logical subject is *thou* understood; its predicate is *fear not*.

Boast not thyself of to-morrow; for thou knowest not what a day may bring forth.

A compound sentence with dissimilar members. The first member, *boast not thyself of to-morrow*, is imperative. Its grammatical and logical subject is *thou* understood; its predicate is *boast not thyself of to-morrow*. The second member, *for thou knowest, &c.*, is declarative, and is connected with the first member by the conjunction *for*. Its grammatical and logical subject is *thou*; its predicate is *knowest not what a day may bring forth*.

EXERCISE.

Treat the following sentences according to the above forms:—Great oaks from little acorns grow.—A soft answer turneth away wrath; but grievous words stir up anger.—Keep thy shop, and thy shop will keep thee.—How precious are the passing moments, and yet how few appreciate their value!—Obey thy parents, and comply with all their wishes.—Uneasy rests the head that wears a crown.

LESSON LXXI.

What sentences alone are compound?

Such as can be divided into two or more members, each having its own subject and predicate.

Does the introduction of a compound subject or a compound predicate necessarily make the sentence compound?

It does not. A sentence may contain a compound subject or a compound predicate, and yet be simple.

A simple sentence may contain a compound subject,—that is, two or more grammatical subjects connected by a conjunction or not; as, “*Time and tide wait for no man.*”

A simple sentence may contain a compound predicate,—that is, one that has two or more parts of equal rank; as, “*Time destroys cities and overthrows empires.*”

A simple sentence may contain both a compound subject and a compound predicate; as, “*Adam and Eve | disobeyed God and forfeited Paradise.*”

How many principal parts has every sentence?

Every simple sentence and every member of a compound sentence has at least two principal parts,—the grammatical subject and the leading verb.

“The summer sun burns fiercely.” The grammatical subject *sun* and the leading verb *burns* are the two principal parts.

When does a third principal part appear?

1. If the leading verb has an object, this object constitutes a third principal part. “The summer sun burns up the grass.” Here there are three principal parts,—*sun*, *burns*, and the object *grass*.

2. If the leading verb has no object, but is followed by a substantive in the nominative case, this substantive, called the Predicate Nominative, forms the third principal part.

“The sun is the great source of heat.” Here are three principal parts,—*sun*, *is*, and the predicate nominative *source*.

3. If the leading verb has no object, but is followed by an adjective belonging to the grammatical subject, this adjective, called the Predicate Adjective, forms the third principal part.

“The summer sun is hot.” Here are three principal parts,—*sun*, *is*, and the predicate adjective *hot*.

FORMS.—*London and Paris are the largest cities of Europe.*

A simple declarative sentence. The principal parts are the grammatical subjects *London* and *Paris*, the leading verb *are*, and the predicate nominative *cities*.

Alexander and Cæsar had an untimely end ; and Napoleon's fate was not much better.

A compound declarative sentence. The first member is *Alexander and Cæsar had an untimely end*. The second member is *and Napoleon's fate was not much better*.

The principal parts of the first member are the grammatical subjects *Alexander* and *Cæsar*, the leading verb *had*, and its object *end*. The principal parts of the second member are the grammatical subject *fate*, the leading verb *was*, and the predicate adjective *better*.

EXERCISE.

Treat the following sentences according to the above forms:—Worth makes the man.—Homer, Virgil, and Milton, are the three great epic poets.—From how many evils do temperance and self-restraint save us!—To die for one's country is glorious.—Do not patience and perseverance always triumph?—Love produces love, and hate engenders hate.—Be cautious; avoid every appearance of evil.

LESSON LXXII.

By what may the principal parts of a sentence be modified ?

By single words, adjuncts, and clauses.

What is an Adjunct ? (See page 89.) What is a Clause ?

A **Clause** is a subdivision of a sentence containing a verb, but not expressing a complete thought.

Name the seven principal kinds of clauses.

Substantive, Relative, Participial, Adverbial, Causal, Comparative, and Hypothetical Clauses.

What is a Substantive Clause ?

A **Substantive Clause** is one that performs the part of a noun ; as, "The fact *that we must all die* should be constantly kept in mind."

What is a Relative Clause ?

A **Relative Clause** is one that contains a relative pronoun expressed or understood ; as, "Moses is the meekest man [*that*] *we read of in Scripture.*"

What is a Participial Clause ?

A **Participial Clause** is one that contains a participle ; as, "Figures, *when well chosen*, embellish discourse."

What is an Adverbial Clause ?

An **Adverbial Clause** is one that performs the part of an adverb, generally expressing time, place, or manner ; as, "*When Columbus discovered America*, it was inhabited by Indians."

What is a Causal Clause ?

A **Causal Clause** is one that expresses the purpose or end for which anything is or is done ; "Boys go to school, *to study and improve their minds.*"

What is a Comparative Clause ?

A **Comparative Clause** is one that contains *as* or *than* followed by the latter of two terms compared ; as, “ *Virtue is as rare as it is admirable.*”

What is a Hypothetical Clause ?

A **Hypothetical Clause** is one that expresses a supposition or something conceived as possible ; as, “ *If I were you, I would try.*”

What is a Vocative Expression ?

A **Vocative Expression** is a substantive used independently, with its modifiers, thrown into a sentence like an interjection, without modifying any particular word ; as, “ *Spirit of peace, still hover over us !*”

FORMS.—*’Tis not the fairest form that holds the purest soul.*

A simple declarative sentence. The principal parts are the grammatical subject *it*, the leading verb *is*, and the predicate nominative *form*. The leading verb *is* is modified by the adverb *not*.

The predicate nominative *form* is modified by the article *the*, the adjective *fairest*, and the relative clause *that holds the purest soul*. The principal parts of this clause are the grammatical subject *that*, the leading verb *holds*, and its object *soul*, which is modified by the article *the* and the adjective *purest*.

Where can you go, O doubter, to find comfort ?

A simple interrogative sentence. The principal parts are the grammatical subject *you* and the leading verb *can go*.

The leading verb *can go* is modified by the adverb *where* and the causal clause *to find comfort*, consisting of the infinitive *to find* and its object *comfort*. *O doubter* is a vocative expression.

We know that the eloquence of Demosthenes was more impassioned than that of Cicero.

A simple declarative sentence. The principal parts are the grammatical subject *we* and the leading verb *know*.

The leading verb *know* is modified by the substantive clause *that the eloquence, &c.*, connected with it by the conjunction *that*. The principal parts of this clause are the grammatical subject *eloquence*, the leading verb *was*, and the predicate adjective *impassioned*.

The grammatical subject *eloquence* is modified by the article *the* and the adjunct *of Demosthenes*.

The predicate adjective *impassioned* is modified by the adverb *more*; and *more* is itself modified by the comparative clause *than that of Cicero*, connected with it by the conjunction *than*. The principal parts of this comparative clause are the grammatical subject *that* (modified by the adjunct *of Cicero*), and the leading verb *was* understood.

EXERCISE.

*Treat the following sentences according to the above forms:—*Who shall decide when doctors disagree?—Cæsar, whose bravery has never been questioned, refused a challenge from Mark Antony.—When you have done wrong, my children, be not afraid to admit it.—To do good to the living is better than to eulogize the dead.—Thousands at once flocked to California, to try their fortunes in that favored land.—How few who merit the world's applause, receive it!

LESSON LXXIII.

What is meant by the Base of a sentence?

The **Base** of a sentence is the part that expresses the leading idea. “Who shall decide when doctors disagree?” *Who shall decide* is the base.

What is meant by a Quotation, or Quoted Sentence?

A word or passage taken, or represented as taken, from some writer or speaker.

What is meant by Analyzing a sentence?

Resolving it into its simple parts.

In analyzing a sentence, what must be done ?

In analyzing a sentence, state its class; select its principal parts; tell by what words, adjuncts, or clauses each is modified, and by what these modifiers are themselves modified, resolving adjuncts into the words that compose them, and clauses into their principal parts and modifiers. If the sentence is compound, treat each member in turn as just described.

FORMS OF ANALYSIS.—*Intense cold produces a desire for sleep, which, if indulged in, results in death.*

A simple declarative sentence. The principal parts are the grammatical subject *cold*, the leading verb *produces*, and the object *desire*.

The grammatical subject *cold* is modified by the adjective *intense*.

The object *desire* is modified by the article *a* and the adjunct *for sleep*, consisting of the preposition *for* and its object *sleep*. The object *sleep* is modified by the relative clause *which, if indulged in, results in death*.

The principal parts of this clause are the grammatical subject *which* and the leading verb *results*. The subject *which* is modified by the hypothetical clause *if indulged in*, consisting of the conjunction *if* and the participle *indulged* (modified by the adverb *in*). The leading verb *results* is modified by the adjunct *in death*, consisting of the preposition *in* and its object *death*.

If travellers tell the truth, woman is always humane; even in savage lands she is gentle and kind to those who need her aid.

A compound declarative sentence. The first member is *if travellers tell the truth, woman is always humane*. The second member is *even in savage lands she is gentle and kind to those who need her aid*.

The principal parts of the first member are the grammatical subject *woman*, the leading verb *is* (modified by the adverb *always*), and the predicate adjective *humane*.

The base of the first member is modified by the hypothetical clause *if travellers tell the truth*. The principal parts of this clause are the grammatical subject *travellers*, the leading verb *tell*, and the object *truth*, modified by the article *the*.

The principal parts of the second member are the grammatical subject *she*, the leading verb *is*, and the predicate adjectives *gentle* and *kind*. The predicate adjectives are modified by the adjunct *to those*, consisting of the preposition *to* and its object *those*, which is itself modified by the relative clause *who need her aid*. The principal parts of this clause are the grammatical subject *who*, the leading verb *need*, and the object *aid*, which is modified by the possessive *her*.

The base of the second member is modified by the adjunct *in savage lands*, consisting of the preposition *in* and its object *lands*, which is modified by the adjective *savage*; and this adjunct is itself modified by the adverb *even*.

Bion used to say, "Know thyself."

A simple declarative sentence. The principal parts are the grammatical subject *Bion* and the leading verb *used*.

The leading verb *used* is modified by the infinitive *to say*, which is itself modified by the quoted sentence *know thyself*.

The quoted sentence *know thyself* is simple imperative. Its principal parts are the grammatical subject *thou* understood, the leading verb *know*, and the object *thyself*.

EXERCISE.

*Analyze, according to the above forms, the sentences in the Exercise under Lesson LXX., also the following:—*Let justice be done, though the sky fall.—The wicked flee when no man pursueth; but the righteous are bold as a lion.—Were it not for the numerous enemies that are constantly destroying them, serpents would prove a serious annoyance to man.—“O Autumn,” writes Bryant, “why so soon depart the hues that make thy forests glorious?” [Here *Bryant* is the grammatical subject, and *writes* the leading verb.]

LESSON LXXIV.

FALSE SYNTAX.

Specimens of the most common grammatical errors are now presented for correction. Give the reasons for each alteration, according to the models. After correcting the sentences, analyze and parse them. Divide into lessons of convenient length.

1. Do not put a substantive that is the subject of a verb or is used independently, in the objective case.

MODEL.—Can you run faster than me? *Corrected*: Can you run faster than I? *Me* must be changed to *I*, the nominative case, because it is the subject of *can run* understood.

Correct:—Him and me are to start to-morrow.—Who dropped that book? Not me, but her.—Whom do you think has arrived?—Them that are industrious generally succeed.—Few have been so fortunate as us?—Jane is taller than him or me.—Them that have ears to hear, let them hear.—We have no fears, thee being our guide.—Who would have thought of its being him?

2. Put a modifying substantive that implies possession, origin, or fitness, in the possessive case. See that the apostrophe is properly used (as shown on page 27).

MODEL.—Charles' reign; mens' lives. *Corrected*: Charles's reign; men's lives.

Correct:—St. Josephs Church; womens' shoes; Musæus' poems; four months residence; misses dresses; Rufus' father; All Saints Church; three hours journey; the marchioness jewels; Tacitus' works; the childrens' books.—Who's hat is that? It is neither his'n, her'n, nor yourn.

3. When there are several modifying substantives, they are all in the possessive case. If they modify different nouns, give each the sign of the possessive.

But, if they modify the same noun, give it to the last only.

MODEL.—I have bought Andrews' and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, and Worcester and Webster's Dictionary. *Corrected*: I have bought *Andrews* and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, and *Worcester's* and Webster's Dictionary. The possessive sign must be omitted after *Andrews'*, because but one grammar is referred to; it must be annexed to *Worcester*, because two dictionaries are referred to.

Correct:—Henry and George's farm are on opposite sides of the river.—What was the name of Adam's and Eve's youngest son?—What is the distance between White and Lee's store?

4. Put the object of a verb or preposition in the objective case.

MODEL.—Who can I trust? *Corrected*: *Whom* can I trust? *Who* must be changed to *whom*, the objective case, because it is the object of the verb *can trust*.

Correct:—He who the world admires most is not always the most worthy of admiration.—He sat behind you and I.—Who did Mr. Ray leave his property to?—Tell whoever you send to be careful.—Who did you say that you saw?—Between you and I, I suspect your friend.—How many Pharaoh's have you read of?

5. Do not introduce a preposition to govern the object of a transitive verb.

MODEL.—Consider of my offer. *Corrected*: Consider my offer. *Consider* being a transitive verb, the preposition must be omitted.

Correct:—I do not wish for any more.—Do you recollect of walking down Broadway last week?—Different men pursue after different objects.—She will not allow of any interference.—His servants we are, to whom we obey.—There are many good men at whom the world ridicule.—Do not doubt of my desire to do you good.

6. In using the passive of such verbs as *offer*, *allow*, &c., be sure to make the right substantive the subject.

MODEL.—Thrice was Cæsar offered the crown. *Corrected*: Thrice was the crown offered Cæsar. *Crown*, being the thing offered, should be made the subject.

Correct :—He was tendered a free passage.—We are sometimes told strange stories.—The clerk is allowed a handsome salary.—Arnold was promised £10,000 and the rank of brigadier-general.—They have been granted leave of absence.

7. See that a pronoun in apposition with a noun is put in the same case as that noun.

See that a substantive following a verb without an object is put in the same case as the substantive before the verb.

MODEL.—We went to see Florence Nightingale, she who did so much good in the Crimea. *Corrected* : We went to see Florence Nightingale, *her* who did so much good in the Crimea. *She* must be changed to *her*, to be in the objective case, because it is in apposition with the objective *Florence Nightingale*.

Correct :—There are few bolder travellers than Livingstone, him who explored the interior of Africa.—If I were her, I would act with more dignity.—Have you read the life of Grace Darling, she who saved so many ship-wrecked persons?—We feared it was him.—Did you suppose it to be she?—None of us could guess whom he would turn out to be.—It was my brother you saw, not me.

8. See that a pronoun agrees in number and gender with the substantive for which it stands.

MODEL.—As you have broken the tongs, you must get it mended. *Corrected* : As you have broken the tongs, you must get *them* mended. *It* must be changed to *them*, the plural number, because *tongs*, the substantive for which it stands, is plural.

Correct :—Many a young man forgets the lessons that their mother taught them.—Every one should be considered innocent till they are proved guilty.—That heifer seems to have lost his way.—Nobody knows what may befall them to-morrow.—On that occasion each singer did their best.—I have mislaid my spectacles ; help me find it.—What do you do with your ashes? I sell it.

9. See that a verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

MODEL.—The distance of the fixed stars are incredible. *Cor-*

rected: The distance of the fixed stars *is* incredible. *Are* must be changed to *is*, to agree with its subject *distance*, in the third, singular.

Correct:—What are the news?—Ashes mixed with salt makes a strong cement for iron pipes.—Was you not present at the accident?—Well, says I to myself, she dare not touch on that subject.—Captain H., with his whole company, have arrived.—Too much study on abstract subjects fatigue the mind.—Three days' journey on such roads are enough to tire any one.—Every teacher have their own notions on grammar.—He may say what he choose.—Each of our public officers have their favorites.—What is oats selling for?—Codrus is one of the noblest kings that is mentioned in history.—The phenomena of the atmosphere is well worthy of attention.—Many a merchant have failed to succeed from a want of punctuality.

10. Substantives connected by *and* expressed or understood are said to be *taken together*.

A pronoun or verb agreeing with two or more singular substantives taken together, must be put in the plural.

MODEL.—Milton's and Byron's poetry is entirely different in its style. *Corrected*: Milton's and Byron's poetry *are* entirely different in *their* style. *Is* must be changed to *are*, and *its* to *their*, to agree in the plural with *poetry* understood (after *Milton's*) and *poetry* expressed, two singular substantives taken together.

Correct:—Of what use is learning and eloquence, if it is never turned to practical account?—Indifference, contempt, persecution, has too often been the fate of genius.—What advantage is rank and wealth to such a character?—To deny one's self and to relieve others is enjoined on every Christian.—Virgil's and Homer's epic has ever commanded for itself the admiration of the world.—Hope and the consciousness of integrity has ceased to comfort me.

11. If the substantives connected by *and* represent the same person or thing, put the verb and pronoun agreeing with them in the singular; as, "The physician and surgeon on the corner *has* closed *his* office."

Correct :—Where is your friend and cousin ? I have not seen them to-day.—Hope, and hope alone, are my support.—Religion, and nothing but religion, are able to console us.

12. Substantives are *taken separately*, 1. When preceded by *each, every*, or *no*, whether connected by *and* or not. 2. When connected by *and not, if not, as well as, but, or, or nor*.

A pronoun or verb agreeing with two or more singular substantives taken separately, must be put in the singular.

MODEL.—James, as well as his brother, have injured themselves by pursuing this course. *Corrected* : James, as well as his brother, *has injured himself* by pursuing this course. *Have injured* must be changed to *has injured*, and *themselves* to *himself*, to agree in the singular with *James* and *brother* taken separately.

Correct :—Neither lead nor iron are so heavy as gold.—Not only France, but England, have committed themselves to this policy.—Cæsar, as well as Pompey, met their death at the assassin's hands.—Either the mate or the captain have lost their reckoning.—It was Saul, and not Jonathan, that killed themselves.—Each day and each hour have their duties.—Every man, every child, are able to do some good to their fellow creatures.—No word, no sigh, were heard.—Simplicity, or rather folly, are stamped on his face.

13. If one of the substantives connected by *or* or *nor* is plural, the verb or pronoun must be plural ; as, “Neither England nor the French *are* satisfied.”

Correct :—Neither glory nor riches can make its possessor happy.—Either my eyes or this type is very bad.—Neither knife nor scissors is in its place.—Either the horse or the cattle has been in the garden.

14. Use *that* as a relative, not *who* or *which*,

1. When both persons and things are referred to ; as, “Look at the *artists* and *master-pieces* *that* ancient Greece produced.”

2. When *who* is the antecedent; as, "*Who that hates his brother can love God?*"

3. After a superlative; as, "*Hannibal was the deadliest enemy that Rome ever had.*"

4. After *same*, *all*, and the adjectives *very* and *no*; as, "*He is the same that he always was.*"

Correct:—All the wagons and drivers which were on the road, were captured.—Tell was one of the purest patriots whom we read of in history.—All which glitters, is not gold.—Who who has a feeling heart, can listen to this story unmoved?—The least which we have a right to expect, is your sympathy.—No prince who breathes, is happier than I.

15. Place the relative with its clause immediately after its antecedent; as, "*Those who break the law deserve punishment*"—*not*, "*Those deserve punishment who break the law.*"

Correct:—The birds are not always the sweetest singers, that have the gayest plumage.—Those can not govern others, who can not govern themselves.—Many are careless in selecting their friends, who use great caution in selecting their horses.—Speeches are not much liked by the people, that are full of learned allusions.

16. Use *this* and *that* with singular nouns only, *these* and *those* only with plurals. Never say *this here* or *these 'ere*, *that there* or *those 'ere*.

Correct:—These sort of people are dangerous acquaintances.—Whose is this here scissors?—Those kind of shoes are good enough.—That 'ere fence must come down.—Empty out that suds.—What are these news I hear?

17. Comparatives and superlatives must not be further compared; nor should the adverbs *more* and *most* be used with them.

Correct:—The fartherest route; a more superior position; in a worser condition; the most straitest sect of our religion; a more clearer style; much more better off.

18. Do not compare adjectives whose meaning precludes the idea of comparison, or use with them *more, most, less, least, so*, or any adverb of degree.

Correct :—The chiefest beauty ; a delusion so universal ; the least perfect of the photographs ; a more preferable office ; the truest assertions ; so infinite a number ; a more complete course ; the freest institutions ; the supremest folly.

19. In comparing two objects, use the comparative degree ; in comparing more than two at once, the superlative.

MODEL.—Which is the smartest of the two brothers ? *Corrected* : Which is the *smarter* of the two brothers ? *Smartest* must be changed to *smarter*, the comparative degree, because only two objects are compared.

Correct :—Which is the greatest, a fathom or a cubit ?—Flax, wool, and cotton, are all important staples,—particularly the latter.—George is the youngest of my two brothers.—Which looks to you the largest, the sun or the full moon ?

20. After the comparative degree, use *other* with the latter of the terms compared, if it includes the former, and *only then*.

After the superlative, use neither *other* nor *any* with the latter term.

Thus :—"The Amazon is longer than any *other* river," because the Amazon is a river. But, "The Amazon is longer than any river in Europe ;" not *any other river*, because the Amazon is not a river of Europe. So, after the superlative : "The Amazon is the longest of all rivers ;" not *of all other rivers*, or *of any river*.

Correct :—Mercury is nearer to the sun than any of the planets.—Samson was the strongest of any man we have ever heard of.—London is the largest of any city in Europe.—Portions of the Bible are older than any writings extant.—The whale is the largest of any other fish.—Railroads develop a country more rapidly than any internal improvements.

21. Do not use *can*, which implies ability, for *may*, implying permission.

Do not use *am* for *have* as the auxiliary of the perfect indicative, or *was* for *had* in the pluperfect.

Avoid corrupt forms of the verb: such as, *had have*, for *had*, in the pluperfect; *hadn't ought*, for *ought not*; *had as lief*, *had rather*, for *would as lief*, *would rather*; *I'm a mind*, for *I have a mind*; *arn't* or *aint*, for *are not*; *moughtn't*, for *might not*, &c.

Correct:—I will let you go; you can start next week.—Can I sit down?—Those happy days are gone.—The Irish are sprung from the old Celtic stock.—The phantom was vanished.—They are already arrived.—I'm a mind to go; but after all I had as lief remain.—You hadn't ought to eat unripe fruit.—Had Blücher have been a little later, Napoleon might have gained the battle of Waterloo.—Arn't you mistaken?

22. The preposition *for* must not be used immediately before the infinitive. “He is trying hard *for to enter college*.” *Correct* by omitting *for*.

Correct:—Cicero sent his son to Athens, *for to finish* his education.—Many have risked their lives, *for to make* discoveries.—Strive *for to cultivate* a contented disposition; *for to possess* this is better than *to roll in* wealth.

23. The sign *to* must not be separated from the rest of the infinitive by an adverb. “*To faithfully represent* this scene is impossible.” Say *faithfully to represent this scene*, or *to represent this scene faithfully*.

Correct:—How pleasant it is to quietly sit by some river's bank!—Try to always deserve the esteem of your teachers.—To hastily read is generally to quite as hastily forget.

24. Omit *to*, the sign of the infinitive, after the verbs *hear*, *make*, and *bid* (meaning *order*), in the active voice; *let*, in both voices; *dare* (meaning *ven-*

ture), when not in the infinitive, participles, or compound tenses; and *see* and *feel*, when transitive, in the active voice. "Hear it [*to*] thunder." "Bid them sit down."

Correct :—Washington soon made the enemy to evacuate Boston.—He bids all to come and to drink freely of the water of life.—We are bid relieve the unfortunate.—Bernadotte durst not to risk a battle.—Just see those boys to run.—Those boys were seen run down the hill.—Do you feel the lancet to prick you?

25. Do not use the preposition *of* between the participle of a transitive verb and its object. Say *by erecting statues*, not *by erecting of statues*.

When *the*, *an* or *a*, *this*, or *that*, is introduced before a participle, the latter becomes a noun and is followed by *of*; as, *this erecting of statues*.

Correct :—Disciplining of raw recruits and making of good soldiers out of them are no easy tasks.—The committing an error is no excuse for defending of it.—What sense is there in this following every absurd fashion?—Adam was not punished for the eating an apple, but for disobeying of his Maker.—There are other forms of charity besides the mere giving money.

26. See that a substantive modifying a participle is in the possessive case; as, "Who first conceived the idea of the *moon's* [not *moon*] being inhabited?"

Correct :—Who ever heard of a fat man plotting treason?—Many savage nations have a tradition of the world having been overflowed by a deluge.—The idea of England joining such a league is preposterous.—There is certainly more danger of a child studying too little than too much.

27. In expressing a negation, do not use two negatives in the same clause or member; as, "I did *not* do *nothing*." Change or omit one of the negatives: "I did not do *anything*," or "I did nothing."

Correct :—We never saw nothing like this.—Don't say nothing to no one.—French is not so melodious nor majestic a language as Spanish.—Can you not obtain permission in no way?—Don't never put off till to-morrow what can be done to-day.

28. Certain words must be followed by certain prepositions. Thus :—Accuse *of* ; adapted *to* ; arrive *at* or *in* ; bestow *on* ; confide, trust *in* ; different *from* ; dislike *to* ; followed *by* ; rid *of* ; accompanied, attended *by* a living object, *with* an inanimate object.

Correct :—Socrates was accused *with* corrupting the youth.—Be careful *to* whom you bestow your favors.—We know on whom we have trusted.—A dog's-ear is quite different *to* a dog's ear.—Try to rid yourselves from flatterers.—To what place did St. Paul next arrive?—The king was attended *with* a large retinue.—Intemperance is attended *by* fearful consequences.—It is a fine edition, accompanied *by* illustrations.—Crime is generally followed *with* remorse.—Canute was attended *with* his courtiers.

LESSON LXXV.

RULES FOR CAPITAL LETTERS.

Begin with a capital,

I. Every sentence and every line of poetry.

II. Proper nouns, proper adjectives, and titles of office and honor ; as, Eve, Italian, General Scott.

III. Common nouns personified in a lively manner ; as, "Then War waves his banner."

IV. Appellations of the Deity, and the personal pronouns *Thou* and *He* standing for His name.

V. The first word of a quoted sentence, not introduced by *that* or any other conjunction ; as, Thomson says, "Success makes villains honest."

VI. Every noun, adjective, and verb in the titles of books and headings of chapters.

VII. Words that denote the leading subjects of chapters, articles, or paragraphs.

VIII. The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O*.

IX. Words denoting great events or eras, noted written instruments, and extraordinary physical phenomena; as, the Creation, the Aurora Borealis.

X. Letters standing for words; as, *P. O.*

LESSON LXXVI.

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing written language by points, in order that the meaning may be readily understood.

The Punctuation-points are as follows:—

PERIOD,	.	SEMICOLON,	;
INTERROGATION-POINT,	?	COMMA,	,
EXCLAMATION-POINT,	!	DASH,	—
COLON,	:	PARENTHESES,	()
BRACKETS,		[]	

A period must be placed after every declarative and imperative sentence, and every abbreviated word; as, "N. Y. stands for New York."

An interrogation-point must be placed after every interrogative sentence, member, and clause; also, after the interjections *eh* and *hey*; as, "Has air weight?"

An exclamation-point must be placed after every exclamatory sentence, member, clause, and expression; also, after every interjection but *O*, *eh*, *hey*; as, "Alas! how sad!"

The colon, semicolon, and comma, are used between

parts of sentences, and denote different degrees of separation,—the colon the greatest, the comma the least.

A colon is placed before an enumeration of particulars introduced by *first, secondly, &c.*; also, before a quotation referred to by the words *thus, these, following, as follows*.

A semicolon is generally placed between the members of compound sentences unless very short, before an enumeration of particulars when the names of the objects merely are given, and before *as* introducing an example.

A comma sets off adjuncts and clauses not essential to the meaning of the sentence, when introduced between parts that are closely connected. It is also used to set off a noun in apposition modified by an adjunct or adjective.

A comma is also placed between very short members of compound sentences; also, after a logical subject ending with a verb, or consisting of parts which are separated by the comma; also, before *or* introducing an equivalent.

A comma is also placed after each word in a series of more than two that are the same part of speech; or after each pair, if the words are taken in pairs.

The dash is used to denote a break in the construction, a transition in the sentiment, a sudden interruption, hesitation, or an abrupt repetition.

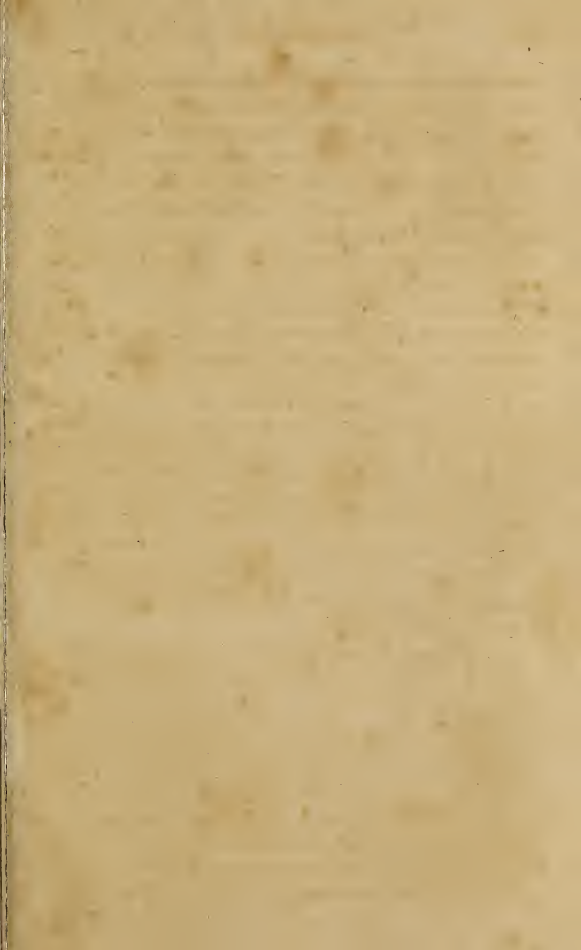
Parentheses are used to enclose words that explain or modify the main proposition, when introduced between parts that are closely connected.

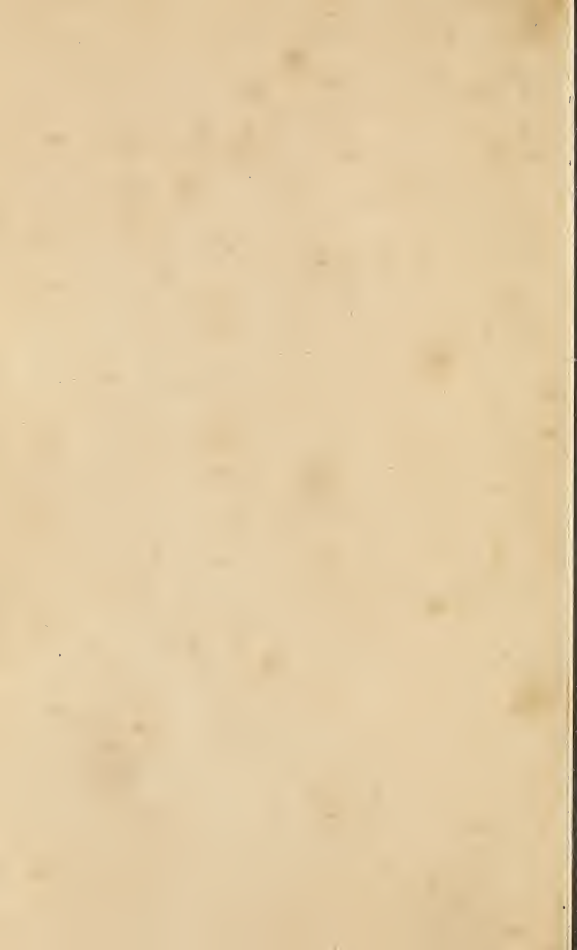
Brackets are used chiefly in quoted passages, to enclose corrections, observations, or words improperly omitted.

The Apostrophe (') denotes the possessive case of nouns, or the omission of a letter or letters; as, *men's, o'er*.

The Hyphen (-) connects the parts of a compound word, or joins the syllables of a word divided at the end of a line.

Quotation-points (" ") enclose words quoted, or represented as employed in dialogue.





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